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HALL'S LECTURES ON SCHOOL-KEEPING

An exact reproduction of the first (1829) edition of this work, to which is appended an account of the life and works of the author, Samuel Read Hall, with a bibliography of his writings

By

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FOREWORD

THE authors believe that through a study of the history of education the educational problems of to-day may be more intelligently attacked, with greater hope of satisfactory solutions being secured. A repeated reading of Hall's *Lectures on School-Keeping* has but served to make that conclusion stronger. For when one reads this first book on education published in the United States in the English language, one is constantly impressed with the fact that the problems of 1929 are but slightly different from those of 1829. If the modern generation of students of education can be brought to a realization that the problems of to-day are not wholly new and that the proposed solutions are in many cases but revamped and resurrected ideas that have been proposed and not infrequently tried out in earlier days, the result will no doubt be a greater degree of patience and a more intelligent approach to the problems as they appear to us now.

It seems, then, to be peculiarly appropriate that this first book on education, now out of print and obtainable only in some of the largest and oldest libraries, should be reprinted in the year that marks the hundredth anniversary of its first publication. And in reprinting this book the authors have felt that it is due to the original author of the first book to present some account of his unusually varied and useful educational life.

Samuel Read Hall was not only a pioneer, a distinction of no little moment in itself, but he was a pioneer who saw clearly and stated explicitly the things of a pioneer nature that he saw. If the reader will note as he progresses through the pages of the reprinted book the references to individual differences, vocational education, teacher training, teacher qualifications, public relations, adequacy of teachers' salaries, teachers' reading circles, extra-curriculum activities, and character education, he will realize just how clearly Hall saw the problems of education of his own day and how he proposed to meet them.

The influence of Hall on education in Vermont, in Massachusetts, in New Hampshire and in New York was

incalculable and it is strange that greater general credit for this influence has not been given to him by our historians of education. Perhaps this is due in large part to the non-spectacular nature of his work, and to the fact that he served more through his contacts with children and teachers and through his various books, rather than in public office where he would have had more contacts with the general public and have received a greater measure of publicity for his achievements.

The present volume contains a full account of Hall's life and his work, with much original data included, and with complete bibliographies attached. For much of the material in the bibliography of Hall's publications the authors are indebted to Mr. Harold Rugg, Assistant Librarian of Dartmouth College.

In the interests of readability foot-notes giving references in substantiation of various statements have been wholly omitted, but for those who may wish to go to the original sources reference numbers have been inserted where desirable, which numbers refer to the numerical list of references on pages 31 and 32. In quite a few cases statements are based on information given to the authors personally by living representatives of the Hall family. Generous acknowledgment must be made to the writings of Henry Barnard, from which much valuable material has been drawn.

Commencing on page 35 of this volume the reader will find the reprint of the first edition of the Lectures. This reprint follows exactly the copy of the first edition in the Widener Library of Harvard University. The original folio numbers are retained and all of the peculiarities of spelling and punctuation, characteristic of the early nineteenth century, are preserved identically as they appeared in the original. In a few instances the pages do not correspond exactly with the original, due to the difficulty of getting modern type-faces that would use exactly the same space as the original type-faces. But in general the folios of the first edition are preserved intact. The original first edition carried in the back of the book certain advertisements of current school text-books; these have been faithfully reproduced in the present volume, as matters of his-

torical interest. The folios of the present volume are indicated at the bottom of each page, the original folios in the latter part of the present volume being indicated in the usual manner in the upper left hand and upper right hand corners of the pages.

It has been thought best to adhere strictly to the first edition in making this reprint. But certain differences between the several editions should be noted. The Second (1830) Edition was identical with the First Edition, except for a few minor changes in phraseology and punctuation. But in the Third (1831) Edition the thirteenth chapter of the First Edition is omitted, that chapter being entitled "To Female Instructers," and a new Chapter XIII is inserted, entitled "On the importance of establishing a lyceum among the members of a school." Also a Chapter XIV, "On the Location and Construction of School-Houses," is added, with a frontispiece giving a floor-plan of a model one-teacher school. In 1832 there appeared a separate volume entitled "Lectures to Female Teachers on School-Keeping," while the Fourth (1833) Edition was changed in its title to read "Lectures to School Masters on Teaching," and in it we find a Chapter XV entitled "Manner of commencing a school, or the first day's work." In 1852 there appeared the Fifth Edition, which was the last edition to appear prior to the present reprint. This time the title was again changed, it now being "The Instructer's Manual: or Lectures on School-Keeping," and this edition contained but twelve chapters, due to the consolidation of certain chapters of the previous edition.

If the publication of the present volume serves to emphasize the practical value of the study of the history of education, in the processes of teacher training, and at the same time renders a more adequate measure of acknowledgment of the monumental labors of Samuel Read Hall, the efforts of the authors will not have been in vain.

Arthur D. Wright
George E. Gardner

Hanover, N. H., October 1, 1929.

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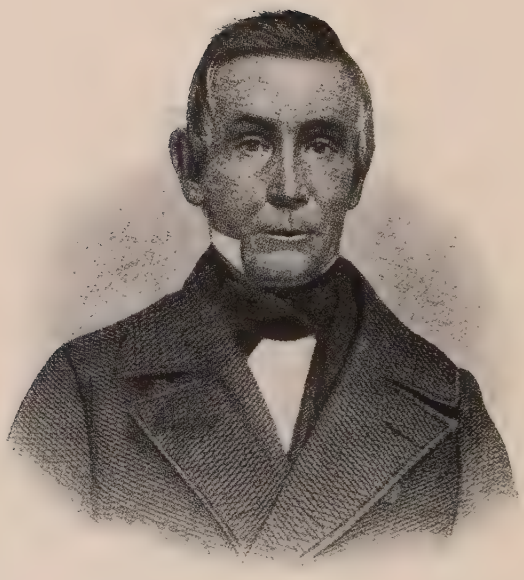

SAMUEL READ HALL

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THE LIFE AND WORKS
OF
SAMUEL READ HALL

In the year 1775 Samuel Hall, of Cambridge, Massachusetts, was given the choice of a college education or the ownership of a farm. Soon afterward, however, when the twenty-years-old boy had been taken from preparatory school and was about to enter Harvard College, his father, a well-to-do ship owner, met with financial reverses that made a college course for the son an impossibility. Thereupon the latter hastily chose a farm in Croydon, New Hampshire, and journeyed overland to that place, which was then a wilderness. In May of the following year he married Elizabeth Hall of Croydon, and settled down to life on his new farm.

The young man had received a good education, even though he had been denied the privilege of attending college, and true to the traditions of his family, he became a surveyor. He was moreover an exceedingly pious man and exerted a great influence on the young people of the town and surrounding farms by instituting family worship at the eve of his marriage. Soon thereafter a revival occurred and as a result of this activity the first Congregational Church in the town of Croydon was founded.

At the outbreak of the Revolutionary War young Hall enlisted with the Croydon Company, and saw a period of active service.[9-23] Upon his return to Croydon after his term of service was ended, he became actively engaged in surveying the lands of New Hampshire in that vicinity and also certain lands in the Eastern Township of Canada.

Samuel Hall had already become the father of ten children, when an eleventh was born on October 27th, 1795. This child was a boy and was given the name of Read in memory of an elder brother who had died a few years before his birth; upon the death of another brother in 1813 he received the additional name of Samuel, the

complete name, Samuel Read Hall, being legalized by an act of the Legislature of New Hampshire, since it involved the changing of a name already recorded.

In January of 1796 the elder Samuel Hall bought, as he was led to believe, one-half of the Eastern Township in Canada, hence he sold all of his property in Croydon and began the long journey to the northward with his wife and ten children. But before he reached his destination he received word that his title to the land that he supposed that he had bought was not valid, and that he had become the victim of a clever swindler. He was at Maidstone, Vermont, when he received this news and, leaving his family under the care of his fourteen-year-old son, at a log cabin in the settlement, he went on alone to attempt to secure what he believed to be rightfully his. His title to the Eastern Township, however, proved worthless, and the money from the sale of his property at Croydon was already in the hands of the land salesman. Though unable then even to buy sufficient provisions for the sustenance of his family, he at once leased a tract of public land at Guildhall, Vermont, a nearby town, and moved his family there. During the rigors and adversities of this winter the young Read was but a babe in arms, and the harsh pioneer life that continued to follow the family's fortunes during the first fifteen years of his life left its impress in a way that had a telling effect in later years.

The town of Guildhall in 1796 was a settlement of twelve families, but was fast becoming the important outpost of the northern frontier. "From an early period in the history of the settlement, considerable attention was given to the instruction of the children in schools, supported for a few months in each year by subscription and taxation. The first school of the town was held in the block house in the year 1788, under the instruction of 'old master Bradley.' "[6] There were originally two districts in the town; a third district was added in the west or "hill" settlement in the year 1799. In such an environment Samuel Read Hall received his early education. The schooling of the boys from the farms was brought to a close each year in the early spring, and all were forced to do their bit in

extracting a bare living from the none too fruitful land. Young Hall, however, was fortunate in having well educated parents, and the bulk of his early training was received from his father and mother, but this, to be sure, was mostly of a religious nature. The Essex County Grammar School "was incorporated and located at Guildhall, November 8, 1805." [6] The first academy building was located in the southern part of the town and the school was taught for many years by Mr. John Cushman, a man who was thought of as a very able educator and a leader in community affairs. Hall, though only ten years old, "was placed in the first class to read and spell," [3] and soon led the class in the study of Morse's Geography and Pike's Arithmetic. The instruction, however, was probably none too good, nor was young Read content to allow his education to be narrowed by the three-R's curriculum and the three months term. Before he was twelve years of age he had read Watts' "The Improvement of the Mind" and Mason on "Self-knowledge" and shortly afterwards read Locke's "Human Understanding." This latter volume was read and re-read by the youth and its influence upon Hall is not hard to see. Hall also taught himself the rudiments of Latin. These books were all a part of his father's library and were ever afterwards treasured by the educator. At his death these books and his marginal commentaries were given to his heirs, but several disastrous fires have left no trace of these boyhood textbooks. This education, however, was somewhat shattered by the death of his devoted mother in the year 1807. His father a few years later took Miss Hannah Blanchard as his second wife.

To this school at Guildhall came pupils from the surrounding country and it is significant to note that the people of the town of Concord, Vermont, a town later made famous by Hall's own school, were even at this early date dissatisfied with the apportionment and sale of their own school land in support of the grammar school at Guildhall, nine miles away.[6]

Hall's father soon became an influential man at Guildhall. In April, 1799, the Congregational Society of the town was formed with seven members, including Mr. and

Mrs. Hall, the former being the first clerk. In 1803 he became the first deacon of the church and drew the plans for their new meeting house. He was also actively engaged as a surveyor, a farmer, religious teacher and town father. His eldest son, Josiah, became the director of the first bank and is characterized as a "smart farmer." It had always, however, been an ambition of the elder Samuel Hall to become a minister of the gospel and in 1811 he was ordained pastor of a church at Rumford, Maine. Rumford at this time differed very little from the backwoods settlement that the Hall family had left, and in the charge delivered by the Reverend Joseph Willard of Lancaster, New Hampshire, upon Hall's induction into the ministry, he expressed the hope that "by his ministry under the divine spirit may this wilderness bud and blossom like the rose and be fruitful in righteousness." [24] Though fifty-six years old, the Reverend Mr. Hall began his church duties with the ambition and optimism of a youth and in three years the church increased its membership from six to seventy-one souls. This success, however, was cut short by his untimely death, November 29, 1814.

The time had now come for Samuel Read Hall to earn his own living. He had acquired a knowledge of surveying and had also been successful on his father's farm, but he was a sufferer from diseases developed in childhood and hard manual labor was too severe for his delicate nature. He, therefore determined to become a teacher, and at the same time prepared for college and for the ministry. He became a close friend of the Reverend Daniel Gould, who had been appointed to the pastorate vacated by his father's death, and under his guidance began to teach in the district schools at Rumford and in Bethel during the spring term of 1815.

Thus began Hall's connection with the public schools, a connection that lasted for more than forty years, and with what benefits to the schools of the republic! The time was ripe for school improvement. The district system, with its endowed evils, had thoroughly gripped the rural communities of New England; the buildings, textbooks, and equipment were inadequate, and the instruction

was the hit and miss method of poorly trained teachers. Though the public had not yet been aroused to the absolute need of education for the new political experiment, the democratic tendencies of the first half of the nineteenth century were becoming manifest. "Equal educational opportunities for all" was soon to be a frequently heard slogan. Of this renaissance period of American education, Hall stands as a precursor and his contributions, made possible through his keen observation and clear insight, paved the way for the work of the well-known Massachusetts educators and stamps him as one of the greatest educators that America has produced.

In a review of the life of Hall it must be remembered that he was not a college graduate. But he had in his makeup the very qualities that were needed for his work and for the conditions under which he had to carry it out, namely, a pleasing personality and a warm heart, coupled with a goodly amount of Yankee practicability and persistency. At Bethel and Rumford [11] in 1816, at Plainfield, New Hampshire, in 1818, he served a harsh and sometimes discouraging apprenticeship, and gained a thorough knowledge of the school room and its problems, and during this time he compiled notes and observations that later became of inestimable worth. Hall said of himself many years afterward, when speaking of his boyhood teaching experiences: "One of the first convictions that fastened itself on my mind after I became a teacher was, that the whole system of Education in the country was defective and that the time of the scholars was, in a great measure, lost. I determined therefore to do what I could to reform abuses and correct evils. My efforts were appreciated and services sought at my own prices." He saw the defects in the schools of his day but, did not criticize or condemn; he immediately set to work to remedy them.

Barnard in his *Journal of Education* [3] gives an interesting account of the introduction of Composition writing by young Hall when a teacher at Rumford, Maine, in 1815. This is one of the earliest accounts of the teaching of English prose writing in the public schools and shows the originality and pioneer spirit of the teacher. It is

also indicative of the wane of Greek and Latin composition and the break from classical tradition, so evident with the establishment of the American Academy and later the public high school. Expression in written English had been neglected by the teachers up to this time and Hall was one of the first to see and to remove the deficiency, even though the educational value of this subject was not publicly sensed until nearly a half century later. The compulsory writing of compositions in this instance not only aroused the anger of the pupils, but also the wrath of the parents, who believed the task too severe for their children. He immediately requested a meeting of both the parents and the pupils at his house the next evening, and at that meeting explained to them the benefits to be derived from the exercises. So convinced were they by Hall's explanation that the English composition became a weekly exercise.

During the years 1816 and 1817 he studied and taught under the guidance of Reverend Mr. Rowell of Cornish, New Hampshire.[8-10] Rowell, himself, was interested in the schools of the town, being the inspector from 1809 to 1827, and undoubtedly had a great influence on Hall. Here Hall first became a member of the church and likewise acquired the preacher-teacher ideal, exemplified by the Reverend Rowell, an ideal that Hall ever afterward followed.

In the fall of 1818 Hall entered the Kimball Union Academy at Meriden, New Hampshire, and followed a full classical course for three years, teaching a term or two at Wilton [15] and Lyndeborough, New Hampshire. Nothing but the elementary branches had ever previously been taught in these schools, and many of the pupils were older than their teacher. He introduced Geography, United States History, and Natural Philosophy into the school and both his curriculum and his method of teaching attracted much notice in the surrounding districts. His success, in fact, was so marked that his services were sought in many places at almost any wages that he was disposed to ask. He not only impressed his pupils with his erudition and intellectual activity, but also by his

strong religious character. He never lost a chance to point out the RIGHT to his pupils, and was always a leader in the religious life of the community. "It was felt throughout the school that Mr. Hall would do what was right and that it was the desire of his heart above all things that every member of the school and the community should also do what was right in the eyes of God." [3] The sight of a child never failed to awaken in him the immensity of his possibilities, and the desire to stimulate and direct its abilities in those channels that would best benefit the child and society, was always uppermost in his mind.

These labors, however, were too much for Hall. After a very serious illness during the spring of 1821 he decided to abandon the idea of entering college, and began to study theology. This he did, first with Reverend Walter Chapin at Woodstock, Vermont, and then in the following year under the supervision of Reverend William Eaton, at Fitchburg, Massachusetts. At the latter town he was principal of the town academy. Hall was licensed to preach by the Worcester North Association, at Princeton, Massachusetts, May, 1822, and at this time received an appointment from the Domestic Missionary Society of Vermont, to a missionary church located in the settlement of Concord, Vermont.

Concord, Vermont, according to Zadock Thompson's *Gazetteer of Vermont,* [19] printed in 1824, had at this time a population of 806 people, most of whom were farmers. The professional men of the town were an attorney, a doctor and a minister. A tannery, three grist mills and a distillery were the only evidences of a machine age. However, the town had nine school districts at this time, seven of which had school-houses.

It is not to be wondered at that the young missionary, upon entering this community, at once turned his attention to the schools of the town and their problems. "He soon saw that the time of many of the children was nearly lost, through deficiencies of the teachers employed, and he felt that in no way could he accomplish more good, than by efforts to 'teach the teachers' of these and the neighboring schools." [3] He had made a favorable impression upon his

congregation by his educational and religious efforts and in January of 1823 was asked to remain with them as their pastor.

Thereupon Hall replied that he would accept the position as minister only on the condition that he would be allowed to conduct a school for the instruction of those in the town who wished to become teachers. The offer was accepted, and he began his duties in Concord, Vermont, on the fourth of March, 1823, according to the terms of the following "contract" as supplied from the records of the "society" or congregation of the Congregational Church of Concord.

Concord, Jan. 20th, 1823.

Then met according to the vote of the Society your Committee in union with the Committee of the Church and performed the business of our appointment by making known our request to Mr. Samuel Read Hall to have him settle with us in the Gospel Ministry by a written request,—Mr. Hall in his answer made the following stipulations—

I. That you pay me annually Three Hundred Dollars.

II. That you allow me to establish & instruct a school such a portion of the year as I may find necessary or convenient not exceeding three fourths of each year and that I have the provides thereof to assist in my support—

III. That during the terms of the school no other duties be expected of me than to supply the desk on the Sabbath and such other occasional pastoral services as will be unavoidable—

IV. That you allow me the number of four Sabbaths yearly to visit my friends.

V. I will take one hundred and fifty Dollars worth of grain, etc annually, at the appraisal of the Society's Committee—

These were agreed to by your Committee.

John Barnett, Archibald Taggart, Richardson Graves } Committee of the Society

The above and foregoing is a true record.

Attest: J. S. Johnson, Clerk.

Incidentally, the Board of Trustees of the Church were indignant because Hall refused to permit liquor to be served at his installation.

One week later, on the eleventh of March, 1823, Samuel Read Hall opened in his own home the first school for teacher-training in the United States. The school, known as the "Columbian School," soon outgrew its quarters, however, and classes were conducted in a vacant room above the general store. These accommodations, too, proved inadequate and during the summer months Hall collected funds from the people of the community and a building was erected on the low ground across the road from the Congregational Church. A stone shaft, erected with fitting ceremonies in 1923, marks the spot of this first American normal school.

The inscription on the tablet reads as follows,—

THE STATE OF VERMONT
Erects this Tablet August 15, 1923,
on the site of the
FIRST NORMAL SCHOOL IN AMERICA
Opened March 11, 1823, by its Founder
REVEREND SAMUEL READ HALL, LL. D.
Originator of America's System
of Teacher Training
Author of the First Text-book on Teaching
Published in America
Pioneer in the Use of the Blackboard
as a Schoolroom Appliance

This building was a two-story affair, built of brick, and was heated by the indispensable sheet-iron stove. On November 5, 1823, this Columbian School was incorporated as "Concord Academy," with Hall and seven others, all inhabitants of Concord, as a board of trustees.

Facts concerning this first normal school were very few and inaccurate until a recent date, when a complete record book of the school and its pupils was discovered under newspaper clippings, pasted on what was supposed to be an old scrap-book. This book is owned by Mrs. Lydia Flint, a granddaughter of the famous educator, and had been used by her as a scribbling book in her child-

hood. It is indeed fortunate that so valuable a book, the only possible link connecting us with the Concord institution, should have survived the vicissitudes of one hundred years. Its present owner, in moving from place to place, had more than once been tempted to throw the "scrapbook" away. The first page, which had always been uncovered, stated in Mr. Hall's own writing that "The Columbian School was commenced March 11, 1823, under the superintendence and principally under the instruction of Samuel Read Hall. The following embraces the names and number of students of each term. October, 1823, the name of this school was changed to Concord Academy."

The subsequent pages contain the names of 224 boys and girls who attended the school during the first three years of its existence, these being recorded by Fall, Spring and Summer Terms. The majority of names occur for but one term, although some are found for three or four terms. The largest attendance at the school was during the spring term of 1824, with sixty-nine members present, and the smallest group was a class of four for the summer of the same year. It was, however, during the Spring and the fall terms that the attendance was the greatest due to the fact that its members came from the adjoining farming settlements. In the winter the travelling was so severe, the roads being impassable for months, that pupils were forced to discontinue their education. Furthermore, during the summer months their services were required on the farms. Nevertheless, the spring terms averaged forty-four pupils, and the fall terms averaged thirty-five pupils.

The pupils coming from a distance lived in various families of Concord and were charged $1.00 a week for board. For an advertisement of the Academy in the Danville, Vermont, *Northern Star* of May 20, 1823, states that "Board may be obtained near the school room on reasonable terms." These debts might be paid in both cash and kind, and frequently Mr. Hall paid a neighbor creditor for the necessities of life by granting his children their tuition at the school. "He admitted a class of young pupils, as well as classes of those more advanced: the former to be used as a Model School, in the instruc-

tion of which he intended to illustrate to those intending to become teachers, both how children should be governed and taught." There is nothing in the record book, however, that would corroborate this statement of Barnard,[5] for all names are entered without mention of age or intellectual accomplishment, nor is there any difference in the tuition fees charged the various pupils.

Among the pupils listed in the first term of 1823 is found the name of Wealthy Wood. During the second term, however, her name is not mentioned among the pupils and the records are written in a woman's hand. This fact, combined with the fact that Wealthy Wood received $1.50 a week for services, bears out the statement of Thompson, in his somewhat erratic *Gazetteer of Vermont,* that Mr. Hall had an assistant at the academy in 1824. If this is true, Miss Wood evidently stayed but a term, for after the winter term of 1824, Hall again kept his own accounts and the name of Wealthy Wood does not reappear in the scrap-book. Aside from this, we have every reason to believe that Hall conducted his school unassisted for three years. Not only did he do this, but he also attended to his church duties and the duties of his home, for he had married Mary Dascomb of Wilton, New Hampshire, in June, 1823. Furthermore he used his leisure time in writing, and in the year 1824 he published *The Child's Catechism* and had started his *History and Geography of Vermont.*

Not only was Hall an innovator by the very fact that he founded this first school for teacher training, but he was a pioneer in his methods of instruction. He is thought to be the first man to use blackboards, as we know them today, in the school room, but this claim is somewhat in doubt. Felt tells us in the *Annals of Salem, Massachusetts* that "blackboards were used for arithmetic calculations in 1820." It must also be remembered that from the *Orbis Pictus* of Comenius we learn that blackboards were not an unusual piece of school room apparatus even in the year 1658. Nevertheless it must be admitted that Hall, if he was not the innovator of the custom, was one of the first to sense the value of blackboards as a means of

better instruction and probably the first man in America to place them in the school room.

But even to greater distinction has Hall an undisputed claim. In order to awaken greater interest in the education of teachers, and primarily for the instruction of the pupils at Concord, Hall prepared a course of lectures on school keeping. These were delivered before his classes and soon awakened outside interest. In the year 1829, in response to the repeated suggestion from his friends and former pupils, these lectures were printed at Boston. This book was the first book on Education ever printed in the United States in the English language, and also antedates all the publications of this nature of Great Britain. These lectures were the observation of the teacher during his ten years as a teacher. "They were written without any aid from books or periodicals. And when first delivered, there was not a single tract, within his knowledge, furnishing even hints on the subjects discussed." [3] The contribution of this book to the advancement of Education in America was practically inestimable. Within two weeks after its publication every copy of the first edition was sold; a second edition was almost as rapidly seized upon as was the first. In May, 1832, James Wadsworth, Commissioner of Education in New York State, placed an order for 10,000 copies of the *Lectures on School-Keeping* and authorized a copy to be placed in the hands of the trustees of every school district in the state. The benefits derived from the Lectures in this state alone were boundless. The state of New York was, as were all others at this time, skeptical concerning tax-supported schools. Especially did the people revolt against any program for teacher-training that they considered a waste of money. Nor had they seen the benefits of the study of education as a separate science. The Lectures not only aroused the exponents of tax-supported schools and teacher-training schools to redouble their efforts, but they converted the skeptics and also were a valuable aid in training the poorly equipped teachers already in the service. Commissioner Wadsworth wrote to a friend concerning the recent placement of Hall's book throughout the state: "I consider these difficulties of pre-

paring teachers as half overcome, in the fact that we have made a beginning which will convince the wavering that something can be done, and which I have no doubt will call into the field new friends and increased efforts, and a vast improvement in our common schools will follow." [8]

The Lectures are entirely practical. They are, in short, a statement of the deficiencies that Hall himself had had to face, together with methods of solving or avoiding these troubles. He states what he believes to be the requisite qualifications of teachers, emphasizes the importance of teacher-training, and then proceeds to outline practical directions for the government and instruction of a school. The last two lectures deal with the instruction of particular subjects, such as spelling, reading, grammar, etc. These Lectures of Hall's probably more nearly approach the modern problem method of studying education than do any of the earlier books written on education. In his preface he states: "In order to raise common schools to that standard of excellence which it is desirable that they should attain, their defects in plan and execution, must be carefully sought out. Nothing effectual can be done until these defects and their causes are clearly ascertained. The remedies may then be proposed, applied and tested." This is essentially Hall's method in teaching Education and it must be admitted that there is a modern tone in his idea.

"On November 17, 1825, Concord Academy was, by an amendatory act of legislature, declared to be a county grammar school." [7-22] Hall's record book also ends at this date, though there was room for further accounts if need be. For the next five years, while Hall remained as pastor of the church at Concord, we have no record of his connection with the grammar school. It is to be supposed that his teaching of teachers in Concord ended with the closing of the Academy, though his interest in the schools of the town probably did not relax one whit. In 1829, about the time of the publication of the Lectures, the trustees of Phillips Academy, at Andover, Massachusetts, were contemplating the establishment of an English Department in their school. The appearance of Hall's book and the

enthusiasm that it aroused among the educators of the day prompted the trustees to offer him the principalship of this new school. At first Hall declined because of ill health and the fact that he considered his education inadequate to successfully fill the position and its responsibilities, but after much urging on the part of the trustees he accepted the appointment and went to Andover in the fall of 1830.

There is a rumor prevalent among the people of Concord, and even held to be true by Hall's descendants, that Hall incurred the wrath of his congregation and the trustees of the Concord Church because of his staunch defense of masonry during the uproar that followed the death of a New York mason, supposed to have been brought about by fellow masons. Hall, in his later years, upheld the masonic order and its teachings and we have every reason to believe that this unpleasant wrangle at least influenced him in making the change to Andover, even if we are not sure that it was the sole cause of it.

Thus ended Hall's labors in Concord, Vermont, labors that became the cornerstone of American normal school education. For "here in an obscure corner of New England, under the hand of one who was, to a remarkable degree, self-taught, self-prompted, and alone in planning it, was founded an institution with all the essential characteristics of a Normal School eighteen years before the Massachusetts movement had reached that point of development which secured the establishment of the Normal School at Lexington." [8] Hall's influence on Massachusetts education, however, had only begun with his work at Concord, for on transferring his labors to Andover he came in direct personal contact with the educators of the state and exerted a great influence over men of no less calibre than James G. Carter and Horace Mann.

The Andover Seminary was divided into three departments, the Normal or Teacher's Department, the General Department designed to prepare young men for business, and the Boy's Department or Model School. The Teachers Seminary, though nominally a department of Phillips Academy, was from the first a separate institution,

having its organization entirely distinct from that of the classical department, and its object, as set forth in a circular issued by the Trustees, was "to afford the means of a thorough scientific and practical education, preparatory to the profession of teaching." The trustees erected a commodious and substantial school building, and expended between two and three thousand dollars in the purchase of apparatus. The institution was provided with a convenient boarding house and rooms for the accommodation of nearly a hundred pupils.

Hall was obliged to originate everything according to his own judgment, both in respect to the courses of instruction and the length of time they should occupy. He therefore instituted a three-year teacher-training course with entrance by examination of candidates in English Letters, Spelling, Geography, Arithmetic and the History of the United States. It was only in the third term of the senior year that the "Art of Teaching" was studied and this course was under the personal instruction of Hall himself. A bureau was established at Andover in order to secure positions for the graduates, and "the applications for the services of the members of the seminary to teach school were greatly beyond the supply, while the compensation offered was more than doubled within a few years." [3] Many teachers, also, not connected with the seminary, applied to him to obtain schools. These applications imposed upon him a very extensive correspondence and his health soon became seriously impaired. It was not an unusual thing for him to be occupied in school, and at his desk, from sixteen to eighteen hours of the day. "The average number of pupils in the Academy for the twelve years that it was in existence was fifty but the whole number of students that completed the prescribed course of study during that time was only a little less than a hundred." [5] It is significant to note, however, that the number of students in the teachers' classes was much larger during the first six years (1830–36) while Mr. Hall was the principal, than it was during the last six years (1836–42) when the seminary was under the leadership of Rev. Lyman Coleman.

Hall was practically alone at the seminary. "For a limited time Mr. John O. A. Codgell was with him, as associate principal, but this arrangement was not entered into with a view to permanency, and was continued only a few terms." [3] The names of Mr. F. A. Barton and Mr. L. Tenney also appear on the record books, each with the title of "assistant."

At this time Hall turned his attention to the need of arousing the attention of the citizens to the defects of the schools and thus aided in the movement already started in Massachusetts for the establishment of state normal schools. In July, 1832, Hall called the friends of education together at Andover and formed what they termed a "School Agents Society." The object of this society was "to promote the cause of education, especially in common schools, by school agents and circuit teachers." [3] A second meeting was held in August of that year and the report of the meeting says "Our desire is to excite public attention to the importance of practical education....to encourage young men of promise to become teachers and agents, and to procure funds for the purpose of aiding such to educate themselves, especially if they intend to exercise their profession in the Valley of the Mississippi....of the means to be employed in effecting our object, the press will be the most powerful instrument we can employ. The establishment of Seminaries for teachers and the employment of lectures will also be put in requisition." [3] Mr. Hall was elected the Vice-President of this organization. A third meeting of the society, a convention of teachers, was held the next year, and Hall, "discussor" of the convention, during the nine days session, delivered lectures upon "The Qualification of Teachers," "The Objects for Which a Teacher Should Labor," "The Responsibility of Teachers," "The Best Method of Commencing a School," "School Discipline," "Arithmetic," "Natural Philosophy," and "Electricity."

This Society sent eight agents throughout the New England states and New York, and especially in the latter state did their labors bear fruit. A thousand circulars were published by the society, dealing with educa-

tional subjects and numerous circuit schools were established. In 1834 the headquarters of the organization were shifted to Boston and it became the "American School Society." But important and philanthropic as this organization was, it had no means of procuring funds and as a natural consequence it soon languished and at length died out. This society however, short-lived as it had been, had, in conjunction with the American Institute of Instruction, another society of which Hall was a founder, awakened the people of Massachusetts. In less than three years the state realized its obligations and the appointment of Horace Mann as Secretary of the State Board of Education was the outcome.

In 1836, Hall, in conjunction with George B. Emerson and E. A. Andrews, wrote a "memorial on the superintendent of common schools," which was read before the Legislature of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. In this letter the establishment of a state board of education and especially a superintendent of common schools was urged. The duties and possibilities of such an office, as outlined in this letter, became the ground work of the memorable legislative act of 1837.

Several books, published during this period, added considerably to Mr. Hall's labors, and two of these books, at least, contain innovations in teaching method. He wrote and published in 1831 the *Child's Geography*, which remedied what he considered a defect in the mode of teaching that subject. Reversing the order that had been invariably pursued, Hall's book began with a description and map of a town, and ended with a map and description of the world. This is essentially the so-called "modern method" of teaching Geography which Munroe in his Encyclopedia of Education (1912) says is an innovation of "the last decade." [16] On the strength of this statement we have every reason to believe that Mr. Hall was the first to see the importance of *home geography* as the fundamental phase of school geography work, and was the first man to apply the local method.

In 1832 the *Grammatical Assistant* and *Lectures on Parental Responsibility and Religious Training* were

written and published by Hall. *A School History of the United States*, jointly prepared by Hall and the Reverend A. R. Baker of Andover, was printed in 1836 and was the first book to emphasize the chronological method of teaching history and also the first book to contain a chronological chart to accomplish this end. This book Hall regarded as the best he ever wrote. In the same period he wrote the *School Arithmetic*, *Lectures to Female Teachers*, *The Child's Friend*, and *The Teacher's Gift*, all of which were published, and some of them appeared in several editions. By the misfortune in business of some of the publishers, while the works were in press, the success of two or three was less than it would otherwise have been, although the author never made any efforts to secure the success of his books after committing them to the press. In addition to these books Hall, during his stay at Andover, contributed many anonymous articles to the *Annals of Education* and other important educational journals.

As a result of this great activity Mr. Hall soon became ill. In 1834 he suffered a serious attack of pneumonia and was forced to withdraw from active efforts on behalf of the School Agents Society. The cold, damp coast climate never was favorable to his frail physique. During the years of 1834–36 Hall's wife and three of his children died, and suffering from both ill health and sorrow, he decided to seek a more favorable climate in the interior. In the year 1834 the Oberlin Collegiate Institution was established at Oberlin, Ohio, and Hall received an offer of the appointment as its first president. He refused, however, to undertake, in his state of health, so laborious an enterprise, but recommended in his stead his brother-in-law, James Dascomb, who forthwith was accepted. In the year 1837 he married Miss Mary Holt of Andover, tendered his resignation to the trustees of Phillips Andover Academy and accepted the principalship of the newly-projected theological department in the Holmes Plymouth Academy located at Plymouth, New Hampshire.

But before the plan had matured, a theological seminary was opened in a nearby town and Hall urged the trustees to make the institution a teachers' seminary, which

they did. Stearns in his *History of Plymouth, New Hampshire* states "the beginning of a new era in the history of the Academy is introduced by a vote of the trustees, February 26, 1836, to elect Samuel Read Hall as principal, and to offer him a salary of $650.00 per annum. For unknown reasons the coming of Mr. Hall was delayed. In January, 1837, the overtures to Mr. Hall were renewed and the proffered salary of $650.00 was accepted. During the administration of Mr. Hall the institution was styled in the prospectus and catalogue as 'The Teacher's Seminary.' "[18] The design of the seminary and the course of study as stated in the catalogue for 1838, were as follows: "This seminary has been founded with the hope of improving popular education, by elevating the character of teachers. The academic year is at present divided into four terms of eleven weeks each. The course of study in the Teachers' Department requires four years in the male department and three in the female department; with the exception of one term each year, during which the member may be absent to teach school." The schedule of studies was essentially the same as that followed at Andover.

There were eight other teachers besides Mr. Hall, on the faculty in 1838. The enrollment was 248 students, of whom 110 were young ladies. But the Seminary started with such great success soon met with difficulties. A donation of $15,000, expected from a citizen of Plymouth, failed to materialize, and that coupled with what we must term poor management on the part of the trustees and the faculty, soon reduced the school to dire straits. The records of the trustees meeting for the year 1840 are silent and the catalogue is the only recorded history of the Seminary. To quote Stearns: "From 1835 to 1841," which unfortunately was during Mr. Hall's principalship, "the faculty was large and expensive. The institution was conducted with more ambition than discretion. The receipts from tuition and from donations failed to meet current expenses and the original burden of debt hung like a shadow over the fortunes of the academy."[18] Mr. Hall closed his labors in the academy early in the year 1840, after having con-

ducted, for the first time in the state of New Hampshire, an institution for the professional education of teachers. Thirty years later the first normal school of the state was located in Plymouth on the site, and in the buildings of Mr. Hall's earlier attempt.

During his stay at Plymouth, Hall had regained his strength. He had up to this time devoted seventeen years to the training of teachers; he had originated many improvements in the mode of instruction and had seen a new era commence in the educational advancement of the country. As a reward for his labors he had received an honorary degree of Master of Arts from Dartmouth College in 1839. However, the old urge of his first love, the ministry, began to make itself felt and he consented again to become a candidate for appointment. He immediately received many invitations and finally accepted the pastorate at Craftsbury, Vermont, a small town in Orleans County, and at the same time accepted the principalship of the flourishing Craftsbury Academy.[20] It was the expectation of the trustees, however, that most of the duties would be delegated to assistant principals. He moved to Craftsbury in May, 1840, and at once organized in the Academy a Teachers' Department to be conducted in conjunction with the classical and general departments already established there. The school, and Hall's department especially, was well attended during the next six years until the duties of the pastorate became too heavy to allow close supervision and instruction in the Academy. Thereupon Hall resigned the principalship in 1846, but continued to give lectures to the prospective teachers until the year 1854, when ill health forced him to accept a less exacting position as pastor of the Congregational Church at Brownington, Vermont. A poem written in the year 1845 said this was a year of "anxiety, disappointment, and sorrow." Hall had always been a student of geology and natural history and his work along these lines led to his employment in the geological survey of Vermont for several seasons, where he worked as an assistant of Dr. Hitchcock, an eminent geologist of that time. When he left Craftsbury he presented the Academy a well arranged cabinet of min-

erals that had been the result of many years' arduous searching.

At Brownington Hall continued his work in behalf of the schools, though old age began to lessen his great capacity for work. The academy at Brownington was then under the able supervision of Mr. Twilight and Hall immediately lent his assistance in procuring a dormitory for the school. He gave lectures there each year on school-keeping and organized for the first time the Teachers' Institutes of Orleans County, which became annual affairs. We have records of the many and varied lectures that Hall gave at these teachers' meetings. The Academy building today is used as a recreation center for the village and the "Old Stone House," a three-story building that was once the dormitory, is soon to be used by the Vermont Historical Society.

The School reports of Vermont contain reports written by Hall as superintendent of the schools of Brownington during the years 1859 and 1860, but we have every reason to believe that he held the position for many years afterward, for in letters written by his daughter to her husband, a soldier in the Union Army during the years 1862-64, there is mention of her father's duties as superintendent of schools. In 1869, also, Hall himself writes to his daughter, Susan Hall Austin, "I am town superintendent of schools, but the visiting of them will not take a great length of time."

As time went on Hall turned his attention to his geological works, an avocation of the out-of-doors that seemed to appeal to him. For his work as an educator and geologist he received an honorary degree of LL.D. from the University of Vermont in 1865. Certain old folks residing in Brownington today recall how Father Hall would roam the fields and hills near the town in search of specimens and how as children any peculiar stone was rushed to Dr. Hall's study for examination. In 1868 he published *The Geography and History of Vermont.*

He had long been of the opinion that geology could and should be taught in the public schools and in 1868 he published the *Alphabet of Geology, or First lessons in*

Geology and Minerology. This text book was probably the first of its kind ever published. In a letter to his daughter written on Thanksgiving Day in 1869, Hall says, "I should like to be near you if you may be able to do some copying for me, as I have another book in embryo." The exact nature of this book is not known for it was never published, but it probably dealt with geographical or geological studies.

From 1872 until 1875 he labored in Granby, Vermont, in a church that he had founded fifty years before, while a missionary at Concord. On his return there he said, "Never once in those fifty years had I ever seen the fruits of my labor in this little village. Such a sight brings to my mind memories, some bitter and some exceedingly pleasant." On June 24, 1877, Dr. Hall died, and was buried at Croydon, New Hampshire, his native village.

A careful study of Hall's life should give him just claim to the distinction of being a great American educator. During his long career, from the time that he was nineteen years of age until he became virtually a patriarch of the Brownington village, he had made the improvement of the public schools his one great concern. He was an originator in practically every branch of education and he always had the self-confidence and courage to put his innovations to the test within the school room. As the founder of the first Normal School in America, the writer of the first book on education in this country, and as the pioneer in the use of the blackboard, the local method of teaching geography and the chronological plan in history study, Hall's fame as an important educator is substantially fixed.

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LECTURES

ON

SCHOOL-KEEPING.

BY SAMUEL R. HALL.

BOSTON:
PUBLISHED BY RICHARDSON, LORD AND HOLBROOK.
No. 133, Washington-Street.
1829.

DISTRICT OF MASSACHUSETTS, *to wit:*

District Clerk's Office.

BE IT REMEMBERED, That on the ninth day of November, A. D. 1829, and in the fifty-fourth year of the Independence of the United States of America, *Melvin Lord,* of the said district, has deposited in this office, the title of a book, the right whereof he claims as proprietor, in the words following, *to wit:*

Lectures on School-Keeping, by Samuel R. Hall.

In conformity to the Act of the Congress of the United States, entitled "An Act for the encouragement of Learning, by securing the copies of Maps, Charts and Books, to the Authors and Proprietors of such copies, during the times therein mentioned:" and also to an Act entitled "An Act supplementary to an Act, entitled, An Act for the encouragement of Learning, by securing the Copies of Maps, Charts and Books, to the Authors and Proprietors of such copies during the times therein mentioned; and extending the benefits thereof to the Arts of Designing, Engraving and Etching Historical and other Prints."

JNO. W. DAVIS, *Clerk of the District of Massachusetts.*

PREFACE.

Of nothing are the people of the United States more disposed to boast, than the free government, free institutions and free schools, which they have established. By the latter, it is designed to place within the reach of every child, the means of acquiring an education, sufficient to prepare him for the duties of a citizen. In a large number of the states, the establishment and support of free schools, has been a prominent object with the Legislatures. In some, the system adopted is, perhaps, better than in any other part of the world.

But still there is a very general opinion, that the amount of benefit desirable, is not obtained from these primary fountains of knowledge. Many plans have been formed to increase their usefulness. Some of these have been put in operation, and others have ended in theory.

It is highly desirable to every patriot, philanthropist and christian, that "the strong desire manifested to render this moral engine of social happiness and political security, as extensive, as complete and efficacious, as the vast resources of our intelligence and wealth will permit," may not cease, till something effectual shall be accomplished. No subject has stronger claims upon us, "for on the correct and early education of youth, depends the ultimate success of every rational enterprise for the intellectual and moral improvement of man."

In order to raise common schools to that standard of excellence it is desirable they should attain; the defects, which exist, must be sought out. Nothing effectual can be done till these, with the causes of them are ascertained. The remedies may then be proposed, applied and tested.

There is a very general belief, that one of the most common defects is the improper character and superficial qualifications of teachers. It is well known that many who are employed to teach our primary schools, are deficient

in almost every necessary qualification. While this defect is so prominent, all the efforts to increase the usefulness of schools, can be attended with only partial success. But let the character of teachers be improved, and improvement in the schools will follow of course. To accomplish this object, it is desirable that institutions should be established for educating teachers, where they should be taught not only the necessary branches of literature, but, be made acquainted with the science of *teaching* and the mode of *governing* a school with success. The general management of a school should be a subject of *much study*, before one engages in the employment of teaching.

However important such institutions are to the success of common schools, as yet, very few of them exist. This has led to the inquiry whether a publication of very practical character, containing such directions to instructers, as might be easily understood and applied, would not be of essential service. This inquiry has led to the publication of the following volume.

The substance of the Lectures, has been given at various times, to classes of young men, who were qualifying themselves to become teachers, in the Institution of which the Author has charge. He has selected such subjects of remarks, as have appeared to him the most important, and has endeavoured to give all the directions as much of a practical character, as possible.

The object, in lecturing and writing, has been to present the nature of their employment, to those who are preparing themselves to instruct; and to impress them with the importance of being properly qualified, and faithful in their employment, as well as to give such directions for governing and teaching as might be useful to them.

The Author does not expect that *all* will correspond with him, in the views he has taken of various subjects, nor, does he dare to believe that all his directions are the best that could be given. But, they are the best, that he could give. And he does firmly believe, that by attentively following them, teachers will be able to accomplish *much more* than has been usual, in training children and youth to habits of application, and in assisting them to gain necessary knowledge.

The work is designed not only to be *studied* by those at Academies, who are anticipating the work of the teacher, but to be carried by the master into his school, and be a directory in the performance of his daily labour.

The Author solicits the candid remarks of such as have had extensive acquaintance with the business of teaching, and hopes thereby to improve the character of the work, if a subsequent edition is demanded. He contemplates the work as an experiment, and as he has had no track to guide him, and only his own judgment and experience to depend on, he is solicitous for the result. Be that what it may, he will have the pleasure of reflecting, that his ardent desire to see the character of teachers improved, and a method of teaching more practical and better adapted to the capacities of children adopted, is laudable. If he has failed of furnishing such a work as is needed, it is owing to want of capacity — not to want of a desire to benefit the rising generation, and through them, his country.

Boston, August, 1829.

ADVERTISEMENT.

The questions in *italics* are designed to call the attention of those, who are qualifying themselves to become teachers, to a practical application of what is said previously. They must of course form an answer according to their own judgment. Answers to many of the questions will be better given in the scholar's own words, than by committing to memory the sentence or sentences, to which the quotation refers. The questions are made very general, in order that they may not be too much depended upon. The intelligent instructer, who puts them to a class, will not be confined to them; but will ask many others.

It may be useful for such as *have been* in the habit of teaching, to have occasional meetings, and question each other on a given portion of the book. Those who may be employed in a town, may occasionally meet for the same purpose. They might also be able to make each other acquainted with the results of their experience and efforts, and mutually benefit each other.

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LECTURE I.

YOUNG GENTLEMEN,

I am induced by various considerations to address you in the following course of Lectures. You expect soon to assume the responsibilities and care of the district schools, in which your services may be needed. It is, therefore, highly important, that a portion of your time *now* should be devoted to the subject which is about to occupy your whole attention. Indeed, all the progress you may be able to make in *science* will not be a sufficient preparation for the work before you. Without some knowledge of the *nature of your business,* how can you be qualified to engage in it? Without having made the "*science of teaching*" a study, how can you be better prepared for success in it, than you would be to succeed in law or medicine, without having studied either? It is true, that many have engaged in teaching school, without having gained any knowledge of the nature of their work, save what they had acquired in the schools which they attended while children. But that others have pursued a course inconsistent and unreasonable, is no reason why you should imitate their bad example, and thus render your labours useless, or even injurious, to the children placed under your care. A moment's attention to the subject, is, it would seem to me, sufficient to show, that no one ought to assume the office of teacher, without having endeavoured first to obtain some correct views of the subject; of the obstacles in his way — the manner in which they may be overcome — the labour he is to perform — and the most probable means of benefiting, in the highest degree, his youthful charge.

I engage in the labour before me, with interest, as involving that which is highly necessary to you, and impor-

tant to the community through which you will shortly be dispersed.

Before proceeding to the subject more immediately before us, it will be necessary for me to animadvert on some circumstances in the exisiting state of our community, which have an important bearing on the character and success of schools.

There is generally no lack of conviction, that *education* is important. Very few are found, even among the ignorant, who are slow to acknowledge, that learning is necessary to enjoyment and usefulness. Among the well educated, no one remark is more frequently heard, than that a good education is necessary for every citizen in a land of civil and religious freedom. But it is equally obvious to me, that while the importance of education is generally acknowledged, the immense value of common schools is not realized. When it is recollected, that from these minor fountains of knowledge, and from these only, the great mass of the community receive all their instruction in science, the marked indifference to their character and usefulness which so often appears, is truly astonishing. "Most of our legislators, our judges and governors have commenced their preparation for the high stations they have filled in society, by drinking at these simple springs of knowledge. We see the magic influence of our schools, in the habits of industry, sobriety and order which prevail in the community; in the cheerful obedience yielded to the laws, and in the acts of charity and benevolence, which are every day multiplied around us. Rarely have we seen a native of our state, paying his life to her violated laws,"* if his early years were spent in the schools of our land. These are facts known and generally acknowledged. But still, with many, there is a criminal indifference to the character and usefulness of common schools.

This is not an indifference which the *stranger* would so readily discern; for much is said in public bodies, by editors and professional men, of their importance, and much interest is felt by such. But still, there is a degree of indifference which it is not hard to detect. It is exhibited

*Burnside's Address, at Worcester, Massachusetts.

in various ways, one of which is the inattention to school meetings at which arrangements are made for the schools of the year. When such a meeting is notified, it is not unfrequently found that but very few attend. From one tenth to one half of the voters are usually present. Almost any article of business is sufficient to detain a voter from attending. When the meeting is organized, some arrangements are made in relation to the board of the teacher, and fuel for the school; and a committee is appointed to provide a master. This committee is often directed by a vote, not to employ an instructer above a certain price, which is frequently very inadequate. The instructer is engaged with a reference to his cheapness, or he is selected on account of relationship, or something equally unconnected with his character for morality, literature or ability to teach. The school commences, and parents seem to feel quite satisfied without further effort, or even inquiry, unless it be to know whether their children are severely punished. The business of the shop or the farm, claims as usual, the chief attention; and the question, whether their children are making all the progress they ought, is very seldom asked. Little is known of the character of the school, beyond the report of the children themselves, or perhaps the remarks of the visiting committee.

I am happy to say that there are many exceptions to the above; but am constrained still to believe, from actual observation, in the Eastern and some of the Middle States, that the exceptions are not sufficient to make these remarks untrue. Whole towns may be found where an interest has been excited on the subject of schools, commensurate with their importance. I am happy to believe that this is true of the city of Boston. Some others have set a good example. But these are not a majority.

The indifference complained of, and which is so perceptible after all the legislating there has been on the subject, is yet great; and requires only to be mentioned to be condemned by the reflecting and judicious. It may have its origin in habit, in ignorance, and in want of reflection.

Habit effects a part. The parent who never visits the school which his children attend, will perhaps hardly give

as a reason, that he never saw his father within the walls of a school room, though it is very possible this may be a chief reason. Still, if interrogated on the subject, he will probably say he lacks time, or does not feel competent to judge of the character of the school, &c. The fact, however, may be, that he has, from his very youth, formed a habit of considering the school a subject of far less consequence than it is. He has imperceptibly imbibed the sentiments of his own parents, and as they appeared but little interested in the character of the schools which they maintained, so the habit has come down to him. It may also have been induced from others. We are strongly inclined to go with the multitude whether right or wrong. When the greater part of parents are indifferent to the character of the school, this feeling is very naturally extended to those who at first might have felt some solicitude on the subject. Thus habits of indifference have extended from family to family, from neighbourhood to neighbourhood and from district to district. The effect becomes permanent, and year after year continues or increases it. But other circumstances have an influence in producing these lamentable effects. It is very apparent that the value of primary schools is not duly considered. A large proportion of parents very seldom sit down to reflect on the influence which their own actions will have on the general happiness of the country, or the influence to be exerted by themselves on the character, usefulness and enjoyment of their children. Few realize as they ought, that their indifference to these subjects is a sin against their country's welfare, their own, and that of their families. They see not the connexion between the institutions in which the character of their children is moulded, and the future welfare of their children. There are men, who would consider themselves deeply insulted, if accused of lacking patriotism; men, who at the first encroachment of a foreign foe, would seize the sword and, "shoulder to shoulder" rush impetuously on the assailant,— men, who would not turn away from the field of battle, while they had blood to spill and an enemy to face,— who still are suffering an enemy to make fearful inroads on the happiness and safety of the republic; an enemy more danger-

ous than a Philip or a Burr, a Caesar or a Bonaparte. Inattention to the means of extending knowledge through the land, is undermining the beautiful pillars of our republican government. But we have reason to believe numbers never think of this. Reflection is wanting; hence they do not discover the effect, which their indifference to these subjects may produce on the welfare of the country. It *should be known* by all, that the best institutions of our country can be perpetuated no longer than intelligence and virtue continue among the common people. We may as well expect liberty in Turkey, as in these United States, when the common people cease to be enlightened. We may as well expect virtue in a band of robbers, as among our citizens, when ignorance is the characteristic of the common people.

If "to send an uneducated child into the world is like turning a mad dog into the street,"* all are under obligations to regard with high interest, those institutions which furnish the means of mental culture to the great mass of people. That parent, who is indifferent to the intellectual food of his children is certainly as guilty as he, who, through indifference, permits his offspring to feed on poisonous food, or should disregard the calls of nature, and make no provision for them in meat and drink. He disregards *his own* happiness as well as that of his children. What comfort can he expect to take in them in age, if he neglect to lay the foundation of their usefulness while they are under his control? Parents can rationally expect but little from children of riper years, if they have neglected to furnish them when young, with such knowledge as would direct them in the path of virtue and filial duty. I see no object more revolting to me, than an undutiful and unkind son. I see no distress more acute, than that of a parent, whose child is brought into shame and disgrace. Parents who are indifferent to the character of the schools which their children attend, do not reflect how severe the consequences may be to their own happiness. How pungent have been the feelings of a father or mother, when attending the trial of a son indicted for some high

*Parkhurst's Moral Philosophy.

crime committed against the laws of the land, when, after conviction the wretched criminal has upbraided them as the cause of his ruin, by having been negligent of his education!

It is unquestionably the duty of every one, to promote as far as may be the happiness of those around him. But those who disregard the character and usefulness of primary schools, are neglecting to secure the happiness of the neighbourhood. Slander is often owing to the want of mental culture and hardly anything produces greater misery, where it extensively prevails. Insubordination and a disregard to every law and to the necessary regulations of society, is always the result of ignorance and vice. By these, the peace of society is disturbed and its quiet broken up. The effect is not less unfavorable to domestic peace—for he who enters the family state uncultivated, ungoverned, and unqualified for its duties, will make others unhappy as well as himself.

Want of reflection on these subjects, certainly occasions some of the indifference exhibited, but not all. A want of natural affection has a share of influence. There are parents, so greedy of gain, that this becomes the all absorbing object, and when the child is found to afford the least aid in accomplishing this object, to this service he is dedicated, and very little time is allowed for any other purpose. In such a man's estimation, to clothe and feed his children seems to be the whole of the parent's duty, and when that duty is performed, he rests contented, as to those placed under his care; but seems to consider it a duty to *himself* to obtain as much benefit as is possible from their earnings before manhood. I am happy to believe that the remarks here made are not applicable in their full extent, to a *majority* of parents. But I am still forced to believe, that with many, there is a want of proper love to children, which shows itself, by the entire unwillingness manifested to give the time, furnish the books, or provide the instructions needed. Can that parent be said to *love* his child who seems to have little thought of his future character or usefulness?

Many, it is to be feared, have no proper sense of the

moral obligation resting upon them, in relation to teaching their children what is most important for them to know. If we are to judge from the conduct of many, we should be led to conclude they had never seen that requisition in the word of God, "Train up a child in the way he should go," or that the apostolic injunction, "Bring up your children in the nurture and admonition of the Lord," had never fallen upon their ears. Is it more than facts and common observation will justify, if I say, that multitudes of parents seem to realize very little of the moral obligation that rests upon them, or, of their accountability to God! The thought, that they must soon meet the children, God has committed to them, at the bar of Infinite Holiness and render a full and impartial account to Him for the manner of treating them while under their care, is not so often realized as its solemnity requires. And, moreover, the intimate connexion between the character of paternal intercourse and the happiness or misery of the child, is as little considered. That man who regards it as a matter of indifference, whether his children can read the sacred Scriptures understandingly or not — whether they form their moral taste from the writings of inspired men, or heathen philosophers, must be considered as not realizing his own moral accountability. When a man appears to have very little concern whether his children form or not, such habits of mental discipline, as will enable them to investigate the evidence of those things which have the most important bearing upon their present and future welfare, it cannot be that he has a proper sense of his or their moral obligation.

To some or all of the above causes, is to be attributed a large part of the manifest public indifference to the character and usefulness of common schools. There are however, others which have a share of influence, but which will be more properly embraced in the subjects of the next Lecture. When so many circumstances combine to produce indifference to the subject, it is not strange that a great part of the benefit, that might be derived from schools, is lost to the community. In order to point out a remedy, the nature of the disease should be fully known. However

malignant it may be, it cannot be presumed to be without remedy, till the best have been faithfully applied. That there is a remedy, has, I conceive, been fully proved, by the fact that in some places, where once the school seemed to be a nusiance rather than a blessing — where many within sight of the school room were growing up in utter ignorance, and in habits of insubordination and crime; such a change has been effected as to put a new face on almost every thing connected with schools. Disorder has given place to decorum; idleness to industry; and misimprovement of time, to a faithful application to books, and the means of intellectual culture.

LECTURE II.

I HAVE in a preceding lecture adverted to the fact, that there is a delinquency on the part of many parents, in considering the value and importance of primary schools. This is owing to various causes, and has the effect to render schools far less useful than they otherwise might be. In connexion with the former remarks, I shall now advert to several other causes which have had an influence to prevent the usefulness of our schools.

1. There is a backwardness on the part of many parents to furnish the necessary apparatus. It is not known or not realized, that a few dollars expended in obtaining some very cheap apparatus, would probably add very greatly to the usefulness of the institutions at which their children are placed, to obtain the first rudiments of knowledge. Hence the house is left empty — there are no globes and maps, or any other means for illustrating those common things, which every child should be made fully to comprehend. Curiosity is not excited, and there is but a dull and formal round of labour, in which young and volatile minds appear to feel but very little interested. I am led to believe that a few dollars applied yearly in supplying a general

apparatus for the use of all the scholars, would frequently do more to increase the usefulness of a district school, than five times the amount expended in lengthening the school without it.* While with some parents there is a continual thirst for innovation, with many, there is a fixed aversion to change. 'There was no such thing when I was young — no such thing when I attended school, therefore it is not necessary now.'—Such is the thought, and sometimes the language of parents, when the necessity of furnishing means for the benefit of schools is urged upon them. The books, to be used by the scholars themselves in pursuing their studies, are frequently inadequate. Of what character soever, if they are possessed they must be used. In the estimation of many, it is an object of greater consequence to save a dollar, than to facilitate in an important degree, the progress of children in knowledge. Thus, there is often important loss both to parents and children. If the child might make double the progress in the same time, there is a loss of half of his time, his board, his tuition and the wear of his apparel; all of which might be saved to the parent, and the child be as well instructed, if there were a due attention to furnishing things necessary for him in the school. This, in a series of years, would amount to no inconsiderable sum. The direct effect is to retard the progress and prevent the usefulness of the school; the indirect effect to injure both child and parent.

The evil now under consideration proceeds sometimes from ignorance and sometimes from parsimony. There are not a few ignorant of this subject, who, were they made acquainted with it fully, would at once be engaged to make the necessary provision for the usefulness of their school. They read no works on education — they associate very little with men of science, and especially with those who are taking a deep interest in education and making pro-

*Teachers and School Committees would do well to examine the articles of apparatus prepared by Mr. Josiah Holbrook of Boston, and for sale by most of the booksellers in that place. They are ingenious, simple, and not expensive. With the aid of them, every teacher might be qualified to give his pupils interesting lectures, upon the most useful principles in Geometry, Mechanics, Astronomy, &c. They are furnished at so cheap a rate as to be within the means of almost every school district.

vision for the best interest of youth. So complete has this ignorance appeared in some instances, where I have had personal acquaintance, that the smile of derision could scarcely be withheld, when I have urged the subject of furnishing means for rendering the school useful, and have mentioned certain articles of apparatus that ought to be furnished for every school.

Parsimony has its effect. The very thought of expending a few dollars in this way is sufficient to call forth the strongest opposition to every proposal for supplying the school with what is necessary for the benefit of its members. I could feel better reconciled to this state of things, if there were consistency in it. But when I see a father prevailed on to purchase finery for his children, to five times the amount asked for this object; or furniture, not to add to the comfort of his family, but only for display; or, for luxuries, which, instead of benefiting any one, injure the health of all, I am inclined to a severity of reprehension, which prudence perhaps would not justify. I have solicited a parent to furnish his son with nothing more than a necessary book, and was repulsed with a sigh and the plea of poverty; and the next hour I heard the *poor man* giving orders to go to the store and get a quantity of *rum* for family use, which would cost three times the amount of the book. The next hour, he was rich enough to furnish money to this very son to attend a party of pleasure, to double the amount I had asked him to pay for the book, and for all this and much more he was *rich enough*. "Will you take this little paper for your children?" I said to another, "it will cost but a dollar." "No, I am not able." "But I am persuaded you will find it a very great benefit to your family, and you may contrive to save the amount in some way, by curtailing expenses less necessary." "I should be glad to take it, but I am in debt, and I cannot."—The next day the same parent was able to pay two dollars for his children and himself to see the *shows* which were exhibited ten miles off, besides the loss of a day, from their accustomed labour.

I might, were it necessary, mention a hundred illustrations of a similar kind which have occurred under my own

observation. But they will be observed by yourselves, and I need only advert to them in this place.

2. Another cause of injury to the usefulness of district schools is the existence of parties within the district. There is but a minority of school districts, where there is not from some cause or other, a disagreement among parents, that eventually grows into a "party thing." This has originated, often, from causes at first very trifling, and has been in some instances continued from father to son. Sometimes difference of religious opinions, has caused it. Sometimes parties have arisen from different political views — at other times merely the location of the school house, or of the families that compose the district, has originated difficulties and discussions that have been kept up for many years. One part of the district is more wealthy than another, or more enlightened, or a part of the families may be connected with each other by consanguinity, and combine to form a party, and in this way strife is engendered. There is sometimes a party that wishes great severity in the school, and another that wishes great laxness of government—one party is in favour of having an instructer from college, and another wishes one who has never been in sight of it. One party wishes to give high wages, and another cares only for an instructer who will keep "cheap." A thousand trifling causes give rise to these ever varying divisions; and, go where you will, you may be told of the "Congregational party," the "Baptist party," the "Presbyterian," or "Methodist," or "Universalist," or some other "party," formed by disagreement in religious opinions. You will be told of the "Democratic party," the "Federal party"— the "Administration party," or some other, growing out of political disagreement. You will be told of the "hill party," the "meadow party," the "river party," the "school house party," &c. &c. Now the influence of all these "party divisions" and feelings, is to obstruct the usefulness of the school. Happy would it be if they were confined to parents; but children imbibe the same feelings, which are carried to the school, and cause dissension there. All are seldom pleased with the same instructer, or, with the same mode of teaching. Where such things exist to any

considerable extent, the effect is unhappy, and the benefit derived from the school is comparatively small.

3. Another source of injury to common schools is the disposition of the more wealthy to place their children at some Academy or High School. Many are able to be at the expense of sending their children to some seminary of higher order, and hence feel but little interest in the common school. Its character is a subject of little interest. A few unsuccessful efforts, to have the school what they wish, end in discouragement, and they often say, "Well, if we cannot have a good school at home, we *can* send to the Academy." Such institutions are now so numerous, that there is little difficulty in carrying into execution this resolve. In this respect, it is undoubtedly true, that Academies and Grammar schools are exerting an unfavourable effect on the common schools of our country.* In many other respects their influence is favourable. It is certainly a subject of great importance to the success of elementary institutions, that the wealthy should strive to increase their

*A committee of the legislature of Massachusetts, in their Report on education, have the following remarks on the influence of multiplying Academies.

"The legitimate effects of such institutions are to engross the attention and care of the more wealthy and influential portions of the community, and proportionably to withdraw their aid from the common free schools. The free schools in consequence, languish under the feeble and irregular efforts to maintain them, of the poorer and less enterprising portions of the community. It is with learning as with riches, the higher it is prized, the more it is accumulated, and as the poorer part of the community, is also in general the less learned, the stimulus to enterprize, in this behalf, as well as the pecuniary ability, is altogether inadequate. Had the same efforts of the more wealthy, interested, and enterprising portions of the community, which have been devoted to the interests of academies and incorporated seminaries, been directed to the interests of the common schools, who will believe that they would not, long since, have attained a much higher character, than they now sustain? It is by no means improbable, that the combined efforts of the whole community, to elevate the character of the common schools, might ere this, have rendered them as profitable for the acquisition of a good practical education, as are now the incorporated academies. But while that class of the community, which has enlisted its principal efforts in favour of those academies, has by those efforts, thus indirectly injured the cause of common education; and also, while it has least needed the fostering care of government, it has largely shared in its munificence, to the utter exclusion of the poorer class of the community."

usefulness, and elevate their character. The influence of the example of this class does a great deal to injure these institutions, for many are governed very much in their estimate of things, by the opinion and conduct of the rich. By withdrawing their influence and assistance, the work is left to those who have not the means, and often to those who have not sufficient weight of character to afford the requisite support. Hence the public sustain much injury, and, though it is not the design of the rich to do wrong in this way, yet a very little reflection must show, that an evil to the community, of considerable magnitude, is unquestionably the result. Every thing is a public evil that serves to depreciate the value of those institutions, in which the stamp of character is fixed on the great majority of the people.

4. I wish here to allude to another cause, which has appeared to me to have an influence in preventing the usefulness of primary schools. It is an evil of a negative character, and might, perhaps, have been better introduced in another place, and in another shape. But, still, I will give it a moment's attention here. There is a want of christian effort to raise the standard of moral influence in schools. The impulse of christian enterprise, of the present day, has led to associations for benevolent effort on almost every subject but this. We hear it mentioned, as a cause for lamentation and regret, by christians and clergymen of almost every denomination, that schools are so often schools of vice. It is a remark which has often fallen on my ear, that "Our children learn more of bad, than of good; increase in vice faster than they gain in knowledge." Indeed, so general is this feeling in many places, that christian parents are accustomed to say, when any new vicious habit is discovered in a child, "He learned it at school." Is it not surprising, that, with these facts so prominent, no combined effort among professed christians has been exerted on this subject? Is it one, on which effort would be hopeless? Is there no ground to believe, that exertion, on the part of christians, would be successful in raising the moral character of our schools? I know that individuals have felt, and have acted. Individual districts

have used their best efforts to obtain moral instructers. But this is by no means sufficient. *"Union is strength."* United and persevering effort is needed on this, as well as on other subjects with which the happiness of society is so intimately connected; and deserves attention, if the *literary* improvement of the young is alone regarded. The most orderly, the most moral school, will make the best progress in study. Moral motives are the best inducement to a faithful improvement of time. It may always be expected by committees of visitation, to find the most subordination, the best progress in learning, and the most correct deportment, where the greatest interest has been awakened in regard to the moral character of the school. I will not undertake to say, that every effort of combined christian influence would be productive of all the effect desired. But it does seem to me just, to attribute a portion of the defect, in the character of schools, to this cause.

5. A very prominent reason, why common schools are not more useful, is the imperfect qualifications of instructers.* I shall, in another lecture, dwell on the requisite qualifications of persons employed in the important business of teaching, and shall here advert to the character of different classes who resort to this employment. A portion of those who engage in teaching are such as have received no instruction, except what they derived from common

*A writer in the Journal of Education, No. 65, p. 163, uses the following language:—

"The ultimate and fruitful source of all these evils is found in the rejection of correct principles in the science of education. The artizan adopts with eagerness any new principle in mechanics; men of the highest attainments and skill in every department of professional life, are alone employed and liberally rewarded; and a long course of study is thought necessary in every science. Not so in this science which is to lay the foundation of every other. Every stripling who has passed four years within the walls of a college, every dissatisfied clerk, who has not ability enough to manage the trifling concerns of a retail shop, every young farmer who obtains in the winter a short vacation from the toils of summer,— in short, every person who is conscious of his imbecility in other business, esteems himself fully competent to train the ignorance and weakness of infancy, into all the virtue and power and wisdom of maturer years — to form a creature, the frailest and feeblest that heaven has made, into the intelligent and fearless sovereign of the whole animated creation, the interpreter and adorer, and almost the representative of Divinity."

schools. Having pursued the studies usual in the school, and having become so far advanced as to derive but little benefit from attending longer, they are desirous of teaching. The employment is a little more respectable, in their estimation, than manual labour, and they inquire for, and usually find, a backward school. If sufficient success attend their first engagement, to enable them to keep the school the specified time, it is usual for them to continue the employment. Such may perhaps have studied the branches required by law, but have not a thorough knowledge of any. They have "gone through" arithmetic, while probably scarcely a rule is understood. Scarcely one in a thousand of this class, have been found able to explain the principles on which the simple rules are founded. Of English grammar, their knowledge is equally superficial. The nature of language,—"the philosophy of grammar"—has claimed as little attention as the most abstruse branches of physics. The more common rules of syntax they may be able to apply, but other parts of grammar have been almost, or entirely neglected. Other branches may have been attended to in the same superficial manner. Now, how is it possible for such an instructer to benefit a school extensively, while there is so great a deficiency in his own qualifications? There may be found some exceptions to the truth of these statements, but, so far as my acquaintance has extended, these are very few.

Another class of teachers are those, who, in addition to the benefits of the district school, have resorted to an academy for a single season. Some, after attending but a few weeks, and others, after a few months, engage in the capacity of instructers. In this class there is a diversity. Some are instrumental in raising the character of their schools, while others do more hurt than good. Yet all lack instruction in those things which regard the business of teaching.

There is another class who engage in teaching for a season, for the sake of pecuniary compensation. They are preparing for college, or are members of college, when they are from twelve to sixteen years of age, and while they are paying exclusive attention to classical studies.

The knowledge, which they have been able to gain of common school studies, is limited; and when they wish to be employed as teachers, they find themselves greatly deficient. They have perhaps fine talents, and are esteemed as young gentlemen of high promise. But their qualifications for instructing a district school with success, are not better than those who were included in the class before mentioned, and they are perhaps even inferior. An example may serve to show the subject in a clearer light. Mr. Z. is a member of one of our most respectable colleges. He is a young gentleman of good talents, and ranks among the first in his class; and to good scholarship adds a very amiable temper, and strict morality. He was invited to keep a school, and engaged it. But the first day he entered it, was the first time he was ever in a common school in his life! After a few weeks of great anxiety and fatigue, he found it impossible for him to benefit the scholars, or to govern them, and asked a dismission from his employment. Similar instances, though not so strongly marked, are often occurring. The deficiency of qualifications for their business, prevents the usefulness of many teachers, and has an influence unfriendly to the character and success of our schools. There are many who are well qualified for the office among the two latter classes, but I am induced to believe that they constitute but a minority.

6. Another reason why the standard of education in common schools, has not been more elevated, "is to be found in the unwillingness, on the part of school districts, to make adequate compensation to teachers of approved talents and qualifications. How else does it happen, at a time when the merchant is overstocked with clerks, and the professions of law and medicine are thronged with students, there is such a lamentable deficiency in the number of those who have the inclination and ability to engage in the business of instruction? Is it not to be ascribed to the more liberal encouragement offered to other employments, compared with the compensation of school teachers? Institutions for the formation of teachers are desirable: but the education of teachers would be unavailing unless the districts could appreciate the importance of affording such

compensation as would command their services. There could be no other guarantee, that those who were educated for the purpose, would engage in the business of teaching. Other causes have their influence, but much of the difficulty may be traced to a disinclination on the part of districts, to make adequate compensation for the required talents and services. This is demonstrated by the fact, that those districts which adopt a liberal course, have able teachers and good schools. The business of education should be committed to the best talents in the country; and it is vain to expect the choicest fruits, without paying the market price. The monthly wages of the teachers of district schools, are frequently one third less, than the amount paid to experienced clerks and journeymen mechanics in the same vicinity. In consequence of this state of things, many of the schools are taught by those who resort to the employment as a temporary expedient, to help them in acquiring some other profession. These persons are without experience, and can have little excitement to establish a character in a business to which they have resorted as a temporary employment. It is desirable that the inhabitants of districts should feel a deeper interest in the character of the schools, where the characters of their children are to be in some measure formed. If under the charge of an able instructer a child may be advanced as far at twelve years, as is usual at eighteen, then there is a gain of six years, to be devoted to further improvements, or to aid the parent. It is evident that such results are attainable under the improved systems of the best instructers; and it is the part of wisdom to adopt such improvements as have been tested and sanctioned by experience."* When suitable compensation is allowed for the services of teachers, we may expect that there will be a great improvement in the character of those employed, and consequently, in the usefulness of district schools.

The next thing I shall mention, as having an influence unfriendly to the progress of common school education, is a want of books of the character needed. Many of the school-books in common use in the country, have been, and

*A. C. Flagg, Superintendent of Common Schools, N. Y.

still are, entirely unfit for use. To mention one: a *Spelling-Book*, of very different orthography and pronunciation from the dictionary in common use, is now found in many, and, till lately, has been found in almost all the country schools.† Many of the books are not adapted to the capacity of children, or do not present a satisfactory view of the subjects on which they treat.

But this difficulty is in a degree obviated, by improvement in the character of some of the books designed for common schools. Could all the best books extant, be introduced extensively, great improvement would ensue. It is a subject for congratulation, that much effort is using for this purpose.

The last thing of which I shall treat in this connexion, is the improper construction and the inconvenient location of school-houses. Many are cold, so that in the winter a part of the scholars must either be very uncomfortable, or make constant disturbance by going to the fire. In others the chimney is defective, and the house is constantly filled with smoke. The seats and desks, in a majority of school-rooms, are badly constructed, so that it is very tedious to sit in them. They are often so narrow as to make it impossible to write with convenience. The desk is usually put so far from the seat that small scholars can scarcely write without putting themselves in a very uncomfortable posture.

The location of school-houses is often determined by a regard to the centre of the district, without regard to anything else. We often observe them built on some eminence where the bleak winds of winter have no obstruction, and where there is no screen from the intense heat of summer; when at the same time some inviting grove is near, of which such advantage might have been taken as to have prevented both wind and heat from causing any annoyance. There are but few districts where some convenient place might not be found for the site of the school-house,

†As a substitute for this, *The National Spelling Book*, by *Mr. Emerson*, recently published at Boston, may be strongly recommended for adoption.

which would promote the comfort of the scholars in both seasons of the year.

The health and convenience of the scholars should be regarded as very important objects in the construction and location of school-houses, and it is just to attribute a part of the failure in the usefulness of schools, to the negligence in these particulars, manifested by many districts.

LECTURE III.

HAVING adverted in the preceding lecture, to certain existing evils, unfriendly to the character and usefulness of common schools, I shall, in this, call your attention to *the requisite qualifications of an instructer.* The subject is one of high importance. It is not every one of those, even, who possesses the requisite literary attainments, who is qualified to assume the direction of a school. Many entirely fail of usefulness, though possessed of highly cultivated minds. Other ingredients enter into the composition of a good schoolmaster. Among these *common sense* is the first. This is a qualification exceedingly important, as in teaching school one has constant occasion for its exercise. Many, by no means deficient in intellect, are not persons of common sense. I mean by the term, that faculty by which things are seen as they are. It implies judgment and discrimination, and a proper sense of propriety in regard to the common affairs of life. It leads us to form judicious plans of action, and to be governed by our circumstances, in such a way as men in general will approve. It is the exercise of reason, uninfluenced by passion or prejudice. It is in man nearly what instinct is in brutes. It is very different from genius or talent, as they are commonly defined, but is better than either. It never blazes forth with the splendour of noon, but shines with a constant and useful light.

2. *Uniformity of temper* is another important trait in the character of an instructer. Where this is wanting, it is hardly possible to govern or teach with success. He, whose temper is constantly varying, can never be uniform in his estimation of things around him. Objects change in their appearance as passions change. What appears right in any given hour may seem wrong in the next. What appears desirable to-day, may be held with aversion to-morrow. An uneven temper, in any situation of life, subjects one to many inconveniences. But when placed in a situation where his every action is observed, and where his authority must be in constant exercise, the man who labours under this malady is especially unfortunate. It is impossible for him to gain and preserve respect among his pupils. No one who comes under the rule of a person of uneven temper, can know what to expect or how to act.

3. A capacity to *understand and discriminate character*, is highly important in him who engages in school-keeping. The dispositions of children are so various, the treatment and government of parents so dissimilar, that the most diversified modes of governing and teaching need to be employed. The instructer who is not able to discriminate, but considers all alike, and treats all alike, does injury to many. The least expression of disapprobation to one, is often more than the severest reproof to another; a word of encouragement will be sufficient to excite attention in some, while another will require to be urged, by every motive that can be placed before him. All the varying shades of disposition and capacity should be quickly learned by the instructer, that he may benefit all and do injustice to none. Without this, well meant efforts may prove hurtful, because ill-directed, and the desired object may be defeated, by the very means used to obtain it.

4. It is desirable that teachers should possess much *decision of character*. In every situation of life this trait is important, but in none more so than in that of which I am treating. The little world, by which he is surrounded, is the miniature of the older community. Children have their aversions and partialities, their hopes and fears, their plans, schemes, propensities and desires. These are often

in collision with each other, and not unfrequently in collision with the laws of the school, and in opposition to their own best interest. Amidst all these, the instructer should be able to pursue a uniform course. He ought not to be easily swayed from what he considers right. If he be easily led from his purpose, or induced to vary from established rules, his school must become a scene of disorder. Without decision, the teacher loses the confidence and respect of his pupils. I would not say, that, if convinced of having committed an error, or of having given a wrong judgment, you should persist in the wrong. But I would say, that it should be known as one of your first principles in school-keeping, that what is required must be complied with in every case, unless cause can be shown why the rule ought, in a given instance, to be dispensed with. There should *then* be a frank confession of error. In a word, without decision of purpose in a teacher, his scholars can never be brought under that discipline, which is requisite for his own ease and convenience, or for their improvement in knowledge.

5. A schoolmaster ought to be *affectionate.* The human heart is so constituted, that it cannot resist the influence of kindness. When affectionate intercourse is the offspring of those kind feelings which arise from true benevolence, it will have an influence on all around. It leads to ease in behaviour, and genuine politeness of manners. It is especially desirable in those who are surrounded by the young. Affectionate parents usually see their children exhibit similar feelings. Instructers, who cultivate this state of temper, will generally excite the same in their scholars. No object is more important than to gain the love and good will of those who are to teach. In no way is this more easily accomplished than by a kind interest manifested in their welfare; an interest which is exhibited by actions as well as words. This cannot fail of being attended with desirable results.

6. A just *moral discernment,* is of pre-eminent importance in the character of an instructer. Unless governed by a consideration of his moral obligation, he is but poorly qualified to discharge the duties which devolve

upon him, when placed at the head of a school. He is himself a moral agent, and accountable to himself, to his employers, to his country and to his God, for the faithful discharge of duty. If he have no moral sensibility, no fear of disobeying the laws of God, no regard for the institutions of our holy religion, how can he be expected to lead his pupils in the way that they should go? The cultivation of virtuous propensities is more important to children than even their intellectual culture. The *virtuous* man, though illiterate, will be happy, while the learned, if *vicious*, must be miserable in proportion to his attainments. The remark of the ancient philosopher, that "boys ought to be taught that which they will most need to practise when they come to be men," is most true. To cultivate virtuous habits, and awaken virtuous principles;—to excite a sense of duty to God, and of dependence on Him, should be the first objects of the teacher. If he permits his scholars to indulge in vicious habits—if he regard nothing as sin, but that which is a transgression of the laws of the school, if he suffer lying, profaneness, or other crimes, to pass unnoticed and unpunished, he is doing an injury for which he can in no way make amends. An instructer without moral feeling, not only brings ruin to the children placed under his care, but does injury to their parents, to the neighbourhood, to the town, and, doubtless, to other generations. The moral character of instructers should be considered a subject of very high importance; and let every one, who knows himself to be immoral, renounce at once the thought of such an employment, while he continues to disregard the laws of God, and the happiness of his fellow men. Genuine piety is highly desirable in every one entrusted with the care and instruction of the young; but morality, at least, should be *required*, in every candidate for that important trust.

7. Passing over many topics connected with those already mentioned, I shall now remark on the necessary literary qualifications of a schoolmaster. It will at once be apparent that no one is qualified for this business, who has not a thorough knowledge of the branches required to be taught in common schools. These are Reading, Writ-

ing, Grammar, Arithmetic, Geography, and in some cases, the History of the United States. All these branches are necessary, to enable individuals to perform the common business and common duties of life. The three first are requisite in writing a letter on business or to a friend. The fourth is required in the business transactions of every day. The two last are necessary to enable every one to understand what he reads in the common newspapers, or in almost every book which comes within his reach. Of each of these branches, the instructer should certainly have a thorough knowledge; for he ought to have a full knowledge of what he is to teach. As he is to lay the *foundation* of an education, he should be well acquainted with the first principles of science. Of the letters of the alphabet such disposition is made, as to produce an immense number of words, to each of which a distinct meaning is given. "The nature and power of letters, and just method of spelling words," should be very distinctly understood. If there be a defect in knowledge here, here must be a defect in teaching. A man cannot be expected to teach that which he does not know himself. Among all the defects I have witnessed in the literary qualification of instructers, the most common, by far the most common, have been here. Among a great number, both of males and females, I have found *very few* who possessed the requisite knowledge of the nature and power of letters, and rules of spelling. The defect originates in the fact, that these subjects are neglected after childhood, and much that is learned then is subsequently forgotten. Teachers, afterwards, especially of academies, presume that these subjects are familiar, and seldom make the inquiry of such as are qualifying themselves to teach, whether they have sufficient knowledge of these points. As a considerable part of every school is composed of those who are learning to spell and read, much importance is attached to the requisite qualifications of the teacher, to lay a proper foundation for subsequent attainments.

Every one who teaches school ought to be eminently a good reader. The habit of reading, early formed, often continues through life. It is not to be expected that a child will learn to read with correctness and ease, without being

well taught. Nor can it be expected that one will teach well, who does not himself know how to read with propriety. Hardly any thing is more difficult than to correct a bad habit of reading, especially where it has been continued for several years.

The value of the art of reading well, is discussed by Dr. Porter, in his Analysis of Delivery. He remarks that "in this country, where literary institutions of every kind are springing up, and where the advantages of education are open to all, no one is qualified to hold a respectable rank, in well-bred society, who is unable to read, in an interesting manner, the works of others. They who regard this exercise as a polite accomplishment, merely, forget to how many purposes of business, of rational entertainment and religious duty, the talent may be applied. Of the multitudes who are not called to speak in public, including the whole of one sex, and all but a few comparatively of the other, there is no one to whom the art of reading in a graceful and impressive manner may not be of great value." To the teacher of children, this is an acquirement of very great importance; and no one is qualified to engage in teaching, till he is able to read well.

A thorough knowledge of Arithmetic is also indispensable to the schoolmaster. I do not mean that smattering of the science, which so often passes for a knowledge of it; but a thorough acquaintance with its principles. To be able, by the aid of rules and manuscripts, to solve the question given, is very far from being the knowledge necessary. No one is properly qualified in this branch of science, until able, from his own knowledge of its principles, to originate rules, even if they were not given in his book. He should be able to tell the "why and wherefore" in every operation, else he is not prepared to teach. The pupil will derive but little practical benefit from the study, and every process will be mechanical. As this science is necessary in every condition of life, as it is to be used almost every day in our lives, great importance should be attached to the mode of teaching it. Mr. Parkhurst justly remarks, "It is the practical utility of any branch of knowledge that gives it its chief value. The difference

between the practical utility of the various branches of knowledge is very great." A knowledge of the nature, power and combination of numbers, whether we regard its effects as important to mental discipline, or its use in the business of life, must be considered among the most important acquirements.*

The instructer is expected to teach Geography; and of course he ought to understand it well himself. This science is very interesting and useful, and is studied in nearly all the primary schools. The treatises on the subject, which have been written within a few years, have done something to facilitate the study, and lighten the labour of the teacher; but no book can supply the place of the living instructer. He ought to be able to make the study more practical than it is possible for any book to make it, however well written. The scholar may learn many interesting facts in this science, without the aid of any instructer; but this will not render it proper, for one to attempt to teach, without a thorough and connected view of the whole science, and without being able to explain what is doubtful, and illustrate what is obscure.

English Grammar is made a study in all our district schools, and is a very important branch of knowledge. It is that which teaches how to speak and write, correctly. If it be an object, then, to be intelligible in conversation and writing, it is certainly important to be well versed in this science. But I am obliged, here to remark, that it has appeared to me, many have overlooked the proper definition of grammar, and while professedly attending to it, have neglected nearly every thing but syntax. To learn to apply the common rules of syntax, to the written language, which we find in some book, is what is commonly regarded as learning grammar.

*Several valuable treatises on this subject are now before the public. One of the most useful I consider to be *Smith's Mental and Practical Arithmetic.* I cannot better express my opinion of the merits of this work, than in the use of the words of the Editor of the Journal of Education, who says, "it has been compiled, as all books for school use ought to be compiled, from the results of actual experiment in the school room. It is entirely a practical work, combining the merits of Colburn's system with copious practice on the slate."

But this certainly has little claim to be called the study of grammar, which should always be explained as the study of language. There are several things, besides mere syntax, which are important. One may have ability to parse the words in a sentence,—may be able to apply rules, rather by habit than otherwise, and yet know but very little of language. As in arithmetic, so here, the teacher who is properly qualified, should be able to originate rules, and to illustrate those principles on which they are founded. If he is not able to explain the propriety of the division of language into parts of speech,—if he is not able to exhibit the reason of the means applied, and the divisions which are made, he is not able to benefit those materially, whom he is to instruct. The great deficiency, which has been observed in the qualifications of many in this branch, makes it proper to dwell longer upon it. Owing to this, many scholars have imbibed so strong prejudices against the study as to engage in it with great reluctancy, or neglect it entirely, after having devoted some time to it. Hardly any thing is more common than to hear it denominated a dry study, while it is a fact, that if properly taught, scarcely any study is calculated to excite more interest. Instructers should be well acquainted with their own language, in order to inspire a love for the study of it, in their pupils.*

A requisition, I believe, recently made in some of the states, is, that the civil and political history of the United States should be made a branch of study in common schools. This is certainly very just. Every citizen of a republic, has a deep interest in knowing the history of the country that he calls his own. He ought to know, by what means its civil and religious institutions have been established. He ought to be familiar with the obstacles which his fathers met and overcame, in achieving the blessings

*For the use of the younger classes in this subject, in our common schools, I would recommend the Elements of English Grammar, by *Mr. Frost*, one of the Masters in the Boston public schools. Its plan is after Murray, but his definitions and language are simplified as far as the nature of the subject will admit, to meet the understanding of children. It also embraces more copious examples and exercises in Parsing, than is usual in elementary treatises.

of civil and religious freedom which he enjoys. The names of his benefactors ought to be indelibly engraved on his memory. Love of country may thus be inspired. A knowledge of many facts in our country's history must be very limited, after its most interesting times shall have gone by, unless the history of these great events is taught in our primary schools. Very soon all the hoary headed patriots who lived and acted in those "times that tried men's souls," will have passed away. Instructers, therefore, should be qualified to teach history, and to interest their scholars in it. This they cannot do without a knowledge of it themselves.

History is the "school of politiks," and in a government like ours, it is necessary that every freeman should in some sense be a politician.*

With a knowledge of the above subjects, the teacher may be enabled to answer the *letter* of the law. But it seems plain to me, that some other branches are requisite in order that he may be properly qualified, to engage in directing the studies and disciplining the minds of the young. Among these I shall mention Intellectual Arithmetic, the Constitution of the United States, and of the state in which he lives. Rhetoric, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry,† and Moral Philosophy. By attention to intellectual arithmetick, he will gain a habit of originating rules, by which he will be able to explain the reasons of the operations in written arithmetic, and exhibit to his pupils the process by which an answer is obtained.

He should be familiar with the Constitution of the United States, because, it is necessary frequently to refer the young to the bill of rights, by which their privileges

*I know of no School History of the United States which may be considered perfect; but the one most deserving of recommendation is probably *Goodrich's*, especially since the appearance of Mr. Emerson's Appendix and book of Questions adapted to this work.

I would here mention a little work which has just made its appearance, entitled *"Historical and Descriptive Lessons"*, embracing sketches of the History, Character and Costumes of all Nations, which promises to be a useful companion in the study of Geography. The work is published at Brattleboro'.

†On the subject of Chemistry, *Webster's Elements* may be recommended.

are secured. The earlier children are made acquainted with this, the more likely will they be to respect the law, and yield a cheerful obedience to it. It is important, that every child should be told something of the constitution of his own state. The instructer should be acquainted with it, in order to call the attention of his youthful charge to those subjects in which they have a common interest. If Hannibal was old enough at seven years of age "to take an oath that he would never be at peace with the Romans," our children, at school, are old enough to have their attention turned to the principles of the government which they are to support.‡

Rhetoric is a subject with which the instructer ought to be acquainted, because he ought to assist his scholars in arranging their thoughts into sentences, and committing them to paper. The older scholars in all our schools should be instructed in letter-writing and composition. To be able to write a letter, or to express one's thoughts on any subject, that may claim attention, is highly important. It is what every one will, more or less frequently have occasion to do. If some attention be not given to the subject in school, there will be mortification and regret in after life. Our children ought to be taught *that* at school, which they will most need in the common business and duties of manhood. A knowledge of Rhetoric is necessary to the teacher, to enable him to *correct* the compositions of his scholars, and to give them such rules for the arrangement of sentences, as may be a guide to them in their efforts.

Some acquaintance with Natural Philosophy and the first principles of Chemistry, will enable the instructer to explain to his pupils, many facts which will rouse their curiosity and excite a thirst for more knowledge on these interesting subjects. Many facts are frequently observed by young children, the reason of which they are not able to understand, but which they have capacity to compre-

‡I wish some one in every State would follow the example of *Mr. Jones* of Massachusetts, who has published an edition of the Constitution of the United States and of Massachusetts, divided into paragraphs, with questions for exercise.

hend, if a familiar illustration were given. Those appearances, frequently, which excite no attention on account of their commonness, would awaken very high interest, if explained in a familiar manner. Such are the turning of a wheel, the power of a wedge, or screw, the freezing of water—the formation of clouds, rain, and snow—the transmission of sound, &c. &c. What the young most need, is to learn to think and to investigate. Whatever serves to fix a habit of reflection is of incalculable importance. By some simple illustration the attention of the child may often become interested, and a train of thoughts excited, not less important to himself, than that sublime theory suggested to the mind of Newton by the fall of an apple. The instructer has many opportunities to direct the attention of his scholars to first principles of natural science, without diverting it from other subjects of study. He should certainly then have that knowledge of these branches which will enable him thus to impart instruction and delight.

I mentioned moral philosophy, as one of the branches with which an instructer should be familiar. I am well aware that this study is much neglected. But, that it has been neglected, heretofore, is no reason why it should be neglected still. If a man were guided by instinct alone, to the attainment of his best good, the subject would be unimportant. Every one knows he may fail of this, either by inaction, or by ill directed effort. "He finds himself led astray by his passions, and he looks in vain for a safe guide, to the example of others. It is then the dictate of wisdom, to inquire by what means these wayward propensities may be subdued, and the feet be guided in the paths of peace. Happy are they who are led to make this inquiry in their early years. Happier are they, whom the hand of instruction, before they are able to make the inquiry for themselves, has been guiding in the path of knowledge and virtue."* This is the appropriate work of the parent and the primary school teacher. But alas, how many parents wholly neglect it! Hence a greater responsibility devolves on the teacher. "Moral philosophy," says Dr. Paley, "is

*Parkhurst

that science which teaches men their duty, and the reasons of it." This then is the knowledge "which the young most need, and which the friendly instructer should sedulously impart." It is this which "tends to recall us from low pursuits—to fix our affections on better objects—to form us to such a character, and direct us to such a course of conduct, as will secure the divine approbation, and be most promotive of our own happiness, and that of the community of which we are members. It teaches a knowledge of ourselves, of human nature in general, of our Creator, and of the relations we sustain to him, and to our fellow creatures." Can any one, then, be properly qualified to train the infant mind, who has not some acquaintance with this science?

The instructer ought to gain all the knowledge he can of the nature of his business, in order to be qualified to commence his important labours. On this subject I shall, however, remark in another place. I have only to add, in conclusion of this lecture, that I have not placed the qualifications necessary for the schoolmaster, any higher than is requisite, in order to make it safe to trust him with the care of young immortals, who are forming characters for this world and the next.

LECTURE IV.

To the subjects mentioned in the preceeding Lecture, you have given attention, and have been, I trust, led to make the inquiry whether you possess the requisite qualifications for the important business to which you have turned your attention. I shall now proceed to give you some general directions, which I consider important to your success and usefulness. You will expect me to use great plainness, for the subject requires it.

The first direction which I wish to give is the follow-

ing:—*Endeavor to become acquainted with the nature of your employment.*

This is important to your *personal enjoyment.* We cannot be happy, when we do not know what to do, or how to act. To engage in a business of which you have no adequate idea, must, therefore, subject you to much unhappiness. The situation of an instructer is very responsible. It is exceedingly important that you should be acquainted with the nature and amount of this responsibility, and of the duties which devolve on you when placed at the head of a school. Without some knowledge of the duties you have to perform, the perplexities and difficulties that may arise, and the constant care that must press upon you, you cannot but experience much inquietude and uneasiness. The very different tempers of those you have to teach and govern, and the wide difference of treatment they have received from their parents at home, will give you much trouble, if you awake to the reality of your situation only when a mountain of care presses upon you.

Form not expectations that cannot be realized, for disappointment will not only make you unhappy at the time, but will unfit you for the duties of the moment. The nature of your business should, as much as possible, be learned beforehand. This is dictated by reason, and experience certainly confirms it. No one engages in any department of manuel labour, till he has gained some knowledge of its details. No one commences a journey, till he has learned the direction he is to go, and the probable character of the road, and of the people he is to find upon the way. No one proposes emigration to a distant part of the country, till he has made diligent inquiry as to the conveniences and privileges, as well as the privations and hardships, which will attend a removal. "Who goeth a warfare, till he has counted the cost, or builds a temple, till he has considered whether he be able to finish it?" The reason is obvious. When we expect hardship, we are prepared to endure it with patience; when we look for trial, we can meet it with comparative composure. If I foresee that the journey, I am to take, will be attended with extra fatigue, I can bear it without complaint. If I

expect the road I am to travel is one of exceeding roughness, I can endure its asperities without a murmur.

But if, on the other hand, I reckon upon ten miles and it proves fifteen; if I expect a good road, and it proves a bad one; it will appear both longer and worse than it really is; and what I might have borne with composure, I cannot endure without disquietude and pain. If I expect to arrive home in an hour, and it takes two hours, the last hour will seem longer than two, ordinarily, for I am disappointed, and disappointment makes me unhappy. It gives everything around me an unpleasant aspect.

In the same way, disappointment in regard to the nature of your business as schoolmasters, will have an important effect on your enjoyment. For, if you form only ideal notions—if you expect, in spite of evidence to the contrary, that every thing will be "perfectly pleasant" —if you suppose the labour to be performed is easy, and without any thing to render it difficult and disagreeable, you will be entirely unprepared to bear the trials invariably attendant upon it. When these trials come, you will experience disappointment, which will make you unhappy at the time, and of course unfit you for the duties of the hour. In a discontented state, you are not prepared to proceed with that, which, at another time, might be perfectly easy. Nor, in this state, are you prepared to enjoy what is pleasant and agreeable. It is generally true, that we bear unexpected difficulties with *far less* composure, than when we had expected them, and of course made up our minds to bear them.

I do not assert, that you can learn anything perfectly in regard to the nature of your employment, without *experience*. It is not possible in this or other callings. The physician, attorney, and minister, do not expect it. But they still use all the means within their reach, to become acquainted with the nature of their several professions, as far as may be, before entering upon them. This is as necessary for the teacher as for them.

Do you inquire, how this can be done? I would say, first, read on this subject whatever has been written, to which you can gain access. Several periodical publica-

tions have devoted more or less attention to it. The Journal of Education has thrown much light upon it. The School Magazine should be found in the hands of every schoolmaster. But there is, it must be acknowledged, a great deficiency in works on this subject.

Again, you may learn something of your business, by observing the peculiar natures of children. They are men in miniature. Like men they have their prepossessions and aversions. Some, that come under your care, have been governed at home; others have not. Some are quick of apprehension, others dull. Some will love learning, and desire to make all the improvement of which they are capable; others will have no taste for learning, and no desire to be improved. Some will be easily governed; others will require all your wisdom, firmness, and prudence, to restrain them from what is wrong, and lead them in a better course. Some have formed habits of application; and others, have been brought up in idleness. Some will be too bashful; others, too bold. Some will be benevolent and affectionate; others, selfish and unsocial. Some will be found very nearly what you desire them to be; others, the opposite in every thing. Such are the diversities that will be found in every school.

You may be equally benefited, perhaps, in learning the nature of your business, by reflecting on the great variety in the character of parents.

Some will wish you to govern the school, others will wish *to govern you.* One parent wishes you to be very strict, another to be very lenient. Some will wish you to whip your scholars, others dread nothing so much as that their favourite children should feel "the rod of correction." Some will wish you to pursue a certain mode of teaching, others will be strong advocates for a system entirely different. Some will wish you to close early, others will fear that you will not keep your hours. One man will admonish you to show no partiality, and another will solicit very particular attention to his children. Mr. A. is willing to trust the school entirely to your management, while Mr. B. is very jealous, lest you assume more than your delegated power. Some will be very anxious to have the school suc-

cessful, others will be entirely indifferent to the subject. Some will cheerfully furnish all the necessary books, while others will think it enough to send their children without any, or with such as are entirely unfit for use. Some will be ready to listen to every complaint of their children, and others will teach them to "tell no tales out of school." The wealthy may perhaps think *their* children entitled to more attention than those of the poor, and the latter may be ready to imagine such a distinction, even if none really exist. In this enumeration I have not mentioned a single difficulty which I have not had personal opportunity to observe, and in regard to many of them I have noticed the same thing in many different places. This diversity among children and among parents, renders it very necessary for you to reflect much on the manner of securing that influence with both, which will enable you to benefit your scholars in the greatest degree. You must be prepared to govern your scholars at school, and *may* often find it necessary to exert nearly as much influence with *parents* as with them.

You may also learn something of the nature of your business, by frequent conversation with teachers. They will be able to impart to you the results of their own experience. Be not disheartened if they tell you of "strong prejudice against every innovation which you may find it necessary to make; that, with some, reason is but a name, and that every attempt to influence them by it, will be as unsuccessful as that of Canute to rule the sea. There is," they will tell you, "an almost universal disposition to believe, that books for study, methods of learning and teaching, common when we were young, must be as good, at least, as any of the newest in use; that the spirit of inquiry, awakened within a few years past, is entirely unknown to the great mass of the people; that most men read but little, and have had no opportunity to investigate the character of proposed improvements or to witness the results of successful experiments." Listen not to such language of your brethren so far as to be discouraged, but only for the purpose of knowing the difficulties in your way, in order that you may rise above them.

After having gained all the knowledge within your reach, on the subjects already mentioned, it is of equal importance for you to understand the nature of your business, as it regards *the mode of teaching*. Without this you can hardly hope for success.

Many have appeared to imbibe the sentiment, that the whole business consists in keeping order in the schoolroom, and going through a daily round of recitations in reading, spelling, and writing, the teacher, meanwhile, furnishing copies, making pens, and performing certain operations in arithmetic, which the students may not be able to perform themselves. But all this has little better claim to the name of teaching, than the chatter of the magpie has to be dignified with the title of language. Such a course may be entirely destitute of intellectual exercise; and is like the operation of a machine.*

Let it be well fixed in your minds, that *to teach is to communicate ideas*. To teach them, it is indispensable that you should be *understood*. The words of an experienced teacher† are in point. "Use language that your scholars can understand. Let your illustrations be drawn from topicks within their knowledge. It is entirely out of place in a common elementary school, to use the language of a professor in the University, or to *affect* the use of terms understood only by the more advanced student. If you teach children, use the language of children. Let it be pure and grammatical; but you convey no instruction, if it be above their comprehension. When you compare a thing unknown, with another thing equally unknown, how can the child be the wiser for it? In talking with your scholars, use their own phraseology, and condescend to their capacities." As

*A writer in the Journal of Education, No. 19, has made some remarks on this mode of teaching, which are worthy of particular attention: Speaking of a school conducted in this manner, he says: "There is something so mechanical in the exercises of a school, that I can never contemplate it without disgust. Even the very books with which our children are furnished, instead of being used as a treasury of materials for mental exercise, are regarded as so many little machines, by which all the requisite operations of the school are performed. And in the use of them on the present plan, there is very little, if any, more intellectual exercise than among the children in a cotton manufactory.

†Mr. Rand. Christian Mirror.

I shall have occasion, in another lecture, to enlarge on this subject, I shall only add here, that you may learn something of the true system of teaching by recollecting the manner, in which you have yourselves obtained ideas. The teacher should put himself in the place of the child, and then inquire what course, it would be necessary for him to take, to gain a knowledge of any subject with which he was not familiar.

No means within your reach, for learning the nature of your business, should be left unemployed. If all which are desirable be not accessible, those which are so should be used with the greater fidelity.

A second direction is, *Consider the responsibility of the station you are to occupy.*

If in deciding to devote yourselves to the employment of teaching, you have been excited by the hope that it will be less arduous, than other employments in which you have engaged, you have altogether mistaken the nature of its duties and cares. The very first day of your trial will dissipate the delusion. The sight of a company of blooming children and youth, "awed by your presence, waiting for your directions, and turning their inquiring eyes on you, to guide them in acquiring knowledge and forming habits," will tell you at once, in language more forcible than any I can use, that on you devolves an arduous task — to you, parents are confiding an important trust — to you, your country is assigning a solemn charge.

The responsibility of your situation may be realized in some measure, by considering that these children have minds naturally dark, which are to be enlightened. They are ignorant of that which they most need to know, and must be instructed. They are tender twigs, ready to receive any direction that may be given them. They are miniature men, who are destined to occupy the places of those who are now active on the stage of life. Yes, in the little community with which you are surrounded, there *may* be a Franklin, or a Washington; or, on the other hand, a Robespierre or a Bonaparte, according to the cast of character which they derive from your efforts. In a country like ours, where character is the passport to the most important sta-

tions in society, and where offices are open to every one who shows himself worthy of the confidence of the people, the responsibility of the teacher is even higher, than in those countries where estates and offices are hereditary. He who is selected to educate a prince, even in the first rudiments of science, considers his station as highly responsible. But in a country like our own, every instructer should consider his responsibility equally great.

Again, you may learn your responsibility by considering the *influence which you may exert,* over your youthful charge.

If you succeed in gaining their love, your influence will be greater in some respects than that of parents themselves. It will be in your power, to direct them in almost any path you choose. You may lead them to form habits of application and industry, or by neglecting them, permit them to form those of idleness and indifference. You may win them either to a love of learning and a respect for virtue, or by your negligence and unfaithfulness, you may suffer them to become regardless of both. You have power to lead them to a cultivation of the social affections, to make them kind, benevolent and humane, or, by your neglect, they may become the reverse of every thing that is lovely, amiable and generous. It will be in your power, greatly to assist them in learning to make nice distinctions in the examination of moral conduct; and to govern their own actions accordingly; or you may, by your unfaithfulness, suffer them to contract the habit of pursuing, regardless of consequences, every thing they desire, and opposing with temper, every thing that counteracts their wishes. You may teach them the duty of yielding submission to proper authority, and to equitable law, or by suffering them to disregard authority and trample on laws with impunity, teach them to oppose all restraint, and consider all law as unnecessary and oppressive. You may do something towards leading them to cultivate that public spirit, which is so essential to the well being of a free country, or you may train them in those habits of selfishness, which will unfit them to be citizens of a republic.

If the consequences of your influence over them were

to cease in *this* world, your responsibility would be less, far less, than it actually is. But, no. Revelation assures us, that our future condition will be decided by the character formed in this world,— that man will be rewarded in the world to come, according to the deeds done in this. The formation of character is not then a matter important in relation to *this life only*. The children with whom you are to be associated, are all the children of one great Creator. They are a part of His extensive kingdom. They are the subjects of His government, and are under the highest obligation to obey His wise and holy laws. He has given them such laws, and made such requirements of them, as are necessary for their happiness. He has enjoined upon them to "Remember their Creator in the days of their youth," "to love their neighbours as themselves,"— and to honour their parents. He has enjoined the duty of gratitude to the Saviour, and of repentance for sin; and each individual committed to your care is liable every day to be summoned away from this world, and to render up an account of the "deeds done in the body." Nor is it impossible, that the influence you will exert over them by your example and instructions, may deeply affect them in regard to these solemn considerations. And as their happiness, present and eternal, depends on the temper they exhibit in regard to the character and laws of God, your responsibility is indescribably great. If you are so happy as to lead them to love Him who has said, "suffer little children to come unto me, and forbid them not," how great the benefit you may confer upon them! But if by your example and instruction you should lead them away from the paths of wisdom, how great is the injury! They will be more likely to listen to counsel and advice, from a beloved teacher, than from almost any other person. They will generally be more disposed to regard what you say to them on the subject of their moral obligation, than what is said to them by their parents or their minister. This talent which you are permitted to occupy, is one for the improvement of which you are accountable to God. And how much does it increase the interest of your calling! Hence I should be guilty of unfaithfulness, if I should

neglect to direct your attention to your own moral obligation. You, as well as the youths committed to your charge, have an account to render to Him who gave you your existence. If you are put in possession of an influence, which, if properly exerted, may greatly augment individual happiness, as well as that of the nation, or, on the other hand, if not properly exerted, may, in the same ratio, increase the amount of human misery; fail not to ponder well the subject, which is to throw upon you so important a responsibility.

LECTURE V.

THE next direction which I shall give, is, *Endeavour to ascertain by what means you are to gain that ascendancy over your pupils, which is necessary, in order to confer on them the highest degree of benefit.*

You well know that there is a great diversity in the influence exerted by different individuals in the same circumstances. If you investigate the subject, you will find various degrees of influence exerted by *clergymen.* While one man's flock are ready to pluck out their eyes and give him, that of another are hardly willing to render him that which is his due. Both, however, sustain the character of God's ambassadors. If you look at the influence of two military commanders, to the orders of the one, you will see the utmost attention paid, while to those of the other, very little obedience is shown. The same will be observed in two schools. To all that is said by one instructer, the highest deference is paid, while in another school we witness the reverse. Now it is certain that there must be some reason for this difference. In each of these instances, and many more to which I might allude, the same individuals sustain the same office or trust. It does not therefore consist in the office itself.

If you look back to the characters of the different instructers, under whom you were placed, you will prob-

ably find that to some of them you listened with great deference, that you were anxious to please them, and desirous of gaining their good opinion, while to the esteem of others, you were indifferent, and regardless whether you gained their good will or not. To meet with some of them *now*, affords you pleasure, while to meet with others is a source of no satisfaction. And what is the reason? You will answer, that these different men were of very different characters; that they showed very different degrees of interest in their business; that they possessed very different qualifications and very unequal shares of solicitude for your welfare. Let me ask, farther, which were those traits, which pleased you, and which pleased the school generally? Was the master pleasant and obliging, or was he morose and ill-humored? and with which was the school best pleased? Was he affable and condescending, or was he mute and regardless of every thing but his own ease? and on which account did you like him? Was he punctual to his time, to his promises and to his threats, or regardless of all? and on which of these accounts were you willing to be directed by him? Did he appear affectionate and kind in all his intercourse, or did he seem to delight in giving you pain and fear? and with which of these traits of character were you better pleased? Did he convince you that he was your friend, and that he desired your good, even at the expense of his own ease? or did he act as if he were the friend of no one but himself? Was he ever ready to assist you to the extent of his ability, or did he send you away without answering your questions, or solving your difficulties? Did he prove to you by his whole conduct, that he desired to benefit the school in the greatest degree of which he was capable, or did he appear to regard little else than to obtain the stipulated reward? and on which account do you now remember him with affection and interest?

You are at no loss to decide on these questions. Let these questions then, serve as a directory to you, in making the inquiry, how you can secure that degree of confidence on the part of your scholars, which will enable you to

benefit them in the degree which you desire. If particular directions on this subject are required, I will say,

First, Endeavour to convince the scholars *that you are their friend,*— that you are friendly to their improvement, and desire their best good. It will not take long to convince them of this, if you are so in reality; and if you pursue the course with them, which would, with your own instructer, have excited this belief in you, in regard to him. Remember, however, that merely a declaration of being their friend, will be very far from proving you to be such, or convincing them of it. You would not have been convinced by the mere declaration of your instructer, if this declaration had not been supported by his conduct. Expect not then, that telling your scholars, you are a friend, and greatly desire their good, will gain you their confidence. You must *prove* it to them by showing a greater regard for their welfare than for your own ease.

Secondly, In order to secure a proper degree of their confidence, *you must not be hasty.* Be not hasty to reprove, be not hasty to praise; be not hasty to promise, be not hasty to threaten; be not hasty to punish, and be not hasty to forget a fault. There is somewhere an old proverb, "Haste makes waste, and waste brings want." Haste in schools in any of the particulars specified, will bring want of confidence. Whatever is done in haste is seldom well done. In school it must of necessity subject you frequently to the mortification of countermanding your order, of failing to fulfill your promise, or of exciting the belief in the minds of your scholars that you are forgetful. It is generally true, that in every situation, the deliberate man accomplishes the most; but, in none is deliberation more important, than in him who is to exercise authority over a large community. Loss of time is not, however, the greatest inconvenience of being hasty in school; there must be loss of confidence on the part of the scholars. You are well aware that you place but little confidence in any man who bears the character of being hasty, be his calling or station what it may.

Thirdly, If you wish to secure the confidence of your school, never allow yourself *to speak angrily* or unusually

loud, and be sure never to fret or scold. All these things are disagreeable. And surely you cannot expect to secure the confidence of a school, by indulging yourself in those habits which make you disagreeable to every one.

Fourthly, You will secure the confidence of the school by being *punctual* in every thing. Punctuality in business of every kind, gains confidence. It prevents the loss of time, and secures opportunity for every duty. It is no where more important, than in schools. Without it, you can accomplish but little. If, after due deliberation, you make a promise, be sure to keep it. If you say that neglect of duty will be followed by punishment, be sure to inflict it. If you require a child to do this or that, see that it is done exactly as you require. To let him go, when he has obeyed you but in part, will be but little better, than not to be obeyed at all. By being punctual in fulfilling every promise, you will not be accused of falsifying your word. Your scholars will not ask a second time for any indulgence which you may once have denied them. They will know what you mean, when you say yes, or no; and thus, you will have their confidence.

By observing these principles, and acting in a manner corresponding to them, you will be able to gain that ascendancy over your youthful charge, which is necessary to enable you to benefit them. You will find it impossible to secure their confidence by the opposite course, for it is opposed to the principles of our nature.

The next general direction which I wish to give, is, *Be willing to devote your whole time, and strive to make the most judicious use of it.* If you have made no reserve of any part of your time, the whole belongs to your employers. I know not that there is any thing morally wrong in making an agreement to reserve a portion of time, to be devoted to your own purposes. But it does seem to me manifestly wrong, if no such agreement have been made with your employers, for you to use any considerable portion of it for your own private benefit, instead of that of the school. This rule ought to be observed, whether the school be large or small; whether your wages be high or low. If you have made an engagement, for even less than

a fair compensation, this apology cannot alter your obligation to the children placed under your care. They are not to be injured, if their parents have misjudged in regard to what ought to be your hire. You had your choice whether to engage or not, and if you have consented to work for a less compensation than you ought to receive, your obligation is still the same as if you were to receive more. If you have engaged to keep the school, without having made any reserve, you are under obligation to give your pupils all the time which you can render useful to them. This direction may seem to you unreasonable, or impracticable. If so, I have only to ask you to examine it attentively, and if you shall then conclude, that you cannot bring yourself to adopt the spirit of it, I hope you will renounce the idea of teaching, and choose some other business. I do not mean by this, to say that you ought not to take the time necessary for exercise and rest, and for answering the claims of friendship. This would be expected under any engagement whatever. It is expected in all other public employments, and it is equally proper in yours.

But you will inquire, how you can spend the whole of your time profitably for your school, when you are with them ordinarily no more than six hours in a day? I will answer you by giving you some account of my friend Benevolus. On commencing his school, his first object was to learn the state of improvement, the capacity and the disposition of every scholar. His next inquiry was, how shall I benefit each scholar, to the utmost of my power? This inquiry was continued with him, during the whole time he was with them, and excited him to constant effort to do them good. The copy books of the school were all carried to his room, and his first work in the morning was to prepare them for writing during the day. He ruled them himself, and wrote out all the copies. This occupied his time, till it was necessary to repair to the school room, which he did half an hour before the time of opening school, in order that he might be assured that a fire had been properly made, and the house suitably prepared for the scholars when they should arrive. When the morning exercises were finished, he retired to his boarding house, or to some house

nearer, as might be most convenient. Two or three of his scholars were expected to hand in letters of composition each day, in their turn; and the intermission of the regular exercises was devoted to correcting them, and suggesting such improvements as might be beneficial to the writers. After the hour of dismissal had arrived, he secured the fire, and left the house. In the evening he met a class or more as might be convenient, and devoted his attention usually to a single branch. One evening he requested a meeting of his scholars in arithmetic; the next, he assembled his grammarians, especially those who were beginners. The third evening of the week was devoted to a class in geography; the fourth to a class in reading, and the fifth to spelling. If, at any time, it was not convenient for a class to meet, or for him to have an evening school, his time was occupied with the children of the family where he boarded, or those of some other family, or in preparing some illustration to be used in the school the next day. Thus Benevolus found enough to do during the whole day. He was never out of employment. Seeing him so much engaged for them, the *scholars* became as much engaged for themselves. Parents also became awake to the interest of the school, and used every effort to produce an early and a constant attendance of their children. Benevolus taught not only in a single district, but successively in several, and in different states, and the same means were used by him and the same results were experienced. He found but very few who did not become greatly interested in their studies. The spirit of the instructer seemed to be infused into the whole school, and parents were commonly forward to acknowledge that the school made more than double the progress it had usually made before. It seemed to my friend a thing highly ridiculous to hear a schoolmaster say he could not find enough to occupy all his time, when he was surrounded with twenty young persons of various ages.

If then it be true that double the usual improvement might be made in district schools generally, (I speak of schools in the country and not of those in cities and large towns,) the subject is one of no ordinary importance. Let me ask you then to reflect on it a moment longer. Suppose

the number of scholars in a school to amount to forty. The time, board, wear of apparel and use of books, cannot be estimated at less for each than $1.50 a week. The wages and board of the master will at least amount to six dollars a week, and probably more, if we include the expense of fuel for the school. The school then costs sixty-six dollars a week, or two hundred and sixty-four dollars a month. If there are six such schools in a town, the expense of them is fifteen hundred and eighty-four dollars a month. Suppose each school is to continue two and a half months, the cost to the town is three thousand nine hundred and sixty dollars, for a single season. Now if there is but half the improvement made, that might be made, we cannot consider the actual loss as less than half this sum.

If any, after looking at the subject in this light, are unwilling to devote their whole time to the work, I would again make the request, that they would turn their attention to some other employment, and not occasion so great a loss to the community. Leave the work to those who will enter upon it with greater spirit, and who are willing to spare no pains.

I have been led to the direction last given from having the conviction forced upon me, that many who have offered their services as teachers, have had no higher motives in so doing, than the attainment of a pecuniary reward. But, while I am firm in the belief that "the labourer is worthy of his hire," and while I am as firmly of the opinion that the ordinary compensation is lower than it ought to be, I cannot conceive that any one ought to engage in this highly responsible business, merely for the purpose of compensation. In business less responsible, it may be justifiable to make that the first object. But where an influence so important is to be exerted — an influence that will probably affect the character and happiness of many, during the rest of their lives; it does seem to me that *patriotism*, to say nothing of higher inducements, requires that the first object of a teacher should be to do good, and that those only should engage in teaching, who are willing to devote the largest portion of their time, that can be rendered beneficial to the school. How often is it said in our hear-

ing, "that our school has done us no good," that "it has been worse than none,"— that "the money might as well have been thrown away." I will not charge every failure on the instructer. It does not always belong to him; but I am persuaded, that a large majority of the instances of failure in the success of schools, is to be attributed to the teacher. Let every teacher engage heartily in his work, and devote his whole time to his business, and instances where the school does more hurt than good, will be very rare.

LECTURE VI.

THE preceding Lectures have regarded subjects, which ought to claim your attention previous to entering the school-room. This, and several following, will relate to your more immediate duties as teachers. The next direction therefore, is, *Govern* your school. This is a direction of great importance. Unless you govern those placed under your care, all your other exertions will be nearly or quite in vain.

"Order is Heaven's first law."

Without subordination on the part of your scholars, without good government on your own, you may as well expect the course of nature to change, as that your school will make any considerable progress. In order to be able to govern your pupils, remember you must *govern yourselves*. If the instructer have little command over his own feelings, if he be angry at one time, fretful at another, easily excited to laughter at another — he cannot exhibit that firmness of purpose, which always commands respect. "Correction administered in anger has no effect to humble or reclaim the offender." It shows even to a child that he who administers it, is guilty of a fault as great as his own. Temptations to excitement will undoubtedly occur. A scholar may be impudent;— from his ignorance of good

manners, or in a sudden gust of passion, he may, perhaps, grossly insult you. Hardly any thing is more apt to call forth anger, than an insult from an inferior. But still the indulgence of anger is very unwise. If a pupil commit a fault he ought certainly to be called to account; but if the teacher, by an unmanly indulgence of passion descend to the level of the child, he cannot expect to benefit him materially by any correction administered in such a state of mind.

There is another particular, in which it is very important you should govern yourselves. Be careful to make no contemptuous remarks concerning any of your pupils. Such remarks may excite a smile from the rest of the school, but it will not be the smile of approbation. The affections of that pupil, you have lost; and every effort to benefit him by your instructions will do him very little good. You may, and will often see things that might seem to give occasion for such remarks, but, as your design is to benefit your scholars, use a proper method to correct the fault, and there let it rest. If the pupil make a blunder, he may be reproved calmly for his carelessness, but never should he be made the butt of ridicule.

It is of equal importance that you should govern yourselves in regard to such speeches as may hold up *families* to derision. You may see many things, in family management to excite a smile, and many things which really deserve censure. But such censure does not come well from the instructer of their children. To be ridiculed by the schoolmaster will have very little effect to correct improprieties. If you say any thing at all, let it simply be a remark on what has been the mode or what has been the opinion of others, and leave the school to draw the inference for themselves. I will not blame you for being diverted, sometimes, at what you may observe in family management. I know well that the eccentricity sometimes observable cannot fail to amuse and to vex you. But still, keep your reflections to yourself.

Some of these points may appear of very trifling importance to you, but much of your success, in the important business of teaching, depends on little things.

After having used proper exertions to govern yourselves, you will be prepared to govern those placed under your care. An important object will have been gained, when you have brought yourselves to feel that to govern the school is of primary importance, and that you *can* and *will* have proper discipline and order. When you have imbibed these feelings, your scholars will read them in your countenance, and will expect nothing else. But the moment the instructer indulges in the apprehension that he cannot govern — that it is impossible for him to have proper order, he may just as well tell his feelings to the whole school; the scholars will not be slow to read his thoughts, and will "govern themselves accordingly."

It is not my design to say, that all have an equal ability to govern, or that the object is accomplished, when the teacher has made the decided *resolve to be master;* but I wish to be understood to say that no one can exercise a proper and uniform authority, any longer than he believes he can do so. This is a natural principle. When we believe we can obtain a desired object, we try, but when we think we cannot, our efforts are feeble.

The next direction in regard to government, is, *Consider your scholars as reasonable and intelligent beings.* As such, they will be influenced by motives, when properly presented. They may easily be brought to know, that they are happier when they do right, than when they do wrong. And when the right and the wrong are both placed distinctly before them, they will seldom call the wrong object the right, or the reverse. Right and wrong may be exhibited to the child of very few years, and he may be required to decide which he will pursue. This appeal will usually exert a far better influence upon him, in leading him to duty, than any that can be effected by the infliction of stripes.

I shall be better understood in what I wish to say on this point, by an example.

A complaint is made to the instructer, by George against John. John is accused of having struck and otherwise injured his school-fellow. After ascertaining the fact,

and finding that the complaint is not without foundation, let a course like the following be pursued.

Instructer. John, I am sorry to find a complaint of this kind brought against you. You have been so unwise as to make yourself unhappy, and to make others unhappy also. You may stand up and answer some questions which I wish to ask you. Is it right for one scholar to beat or abuse another?

John. No, sir.

Inst. Do you think that the school could make any good progress in study, if all the scholars should treat each other, as you have treated George?

John. I think not.

Inst. Would you be willing that one of the larger boys should beat you, or otherwise abuse you?

John. No, sir.

Inst. Well, do you think it is right for you to do to others, as you are unwilling they should do to you?

John. I do not think it is.

(This answer will, almost invariably, be given. Not one child in a thousand would give a different one, where the teacher commences with him in a deliberate and gentle manner. Conscience tells him he has done wrong, and he must be uncommonly hardened, to say that he has done right. If he be inclined to excuse himself, because George said or did something that displeased him, he should be shown that he is accountable for *his own* conduct, and that misbehaviour in another person does not alter the nature of his own offence. That the offence of one, does not justify a far greater error in another, may be shown by reference to any judicial proceeding.)

Inst. When one scholar injures another, ought he to make any satisfaction for it?

John. I suppose he ought.

Inst. Well, do you think that you ought to make any satisfaction to George?

John. I don't know but I ought.

Inst. I wish you to give me a definite answer. Is it right or is it wrong for you to make satisfaction?

John. It is right.

Inst. Are you willing to do right when you know what is right?

John. (After some hesitation), Yes, sir.

Inst. You are willing to go then to George and make satisfaction?

(Here he will probably hesitate again, but after repeating the question several times, he will probably say that he is. In pursuing a mode similar to this, a great many times, I have scarcely found an instance where the culprit has not said he was willing to make satisfaction to the injured party. He may then be sent to George, to ask what satisfaction he shall make. George will probably say, "ask forgiveness," or something similar. If such a course appear reasonable, he should be required to do so, and then to return to the master.)

Inst. You have done what is right, in regard to George, but that does not make satisfaction to others who have been injured. You have set a very bad example,— have broken the rules of the school, and have caused the loss of time, which might have been improved in gaining knowledge. Is it not right, therefore, that I should have satisfaction in behalf of the school?

John. I suppose it is.

Inst. Yes, it is right that every offence should be suitably atoned for. And this must be complied with in your case. I have not, however reflected on the subject sufficiently, and shall defer it till two o'clock tomorrow, and shall attend to it precisely at the time I have appointed. I hope you will yourself reflect much on the subject, and be able to tell me what is right for me to require.

It has ever appeared to me, that punishment, if it become necessary in any case, should be deferred for a season. But precisely at the time set, it should be attended to. By deferring the sentence, as in the case above-mentioned, the pupil has opportunity to reflect. He is induced to reflect on the nature of his offence, that he may form an idea of the punishment he shall probably receive. Such reflection will be of more service to him, than any severity whatever. Indeed, I have seldom been obliged to call a

scholar to account more than once, where I have pursued the course here recommended.

I will suppose another case, to illustrate the direction to treat the scholars as moral and intellectual beings.

Laura comes to the master and wishes to be excused from writing a composition, which has been required of her.

Instructer. Why do you wish me to excuse you, Laura?

Laura. I don't know what to write — I cannot write any thing fit to be seen.

Inst. Well, Laura, we will converse about it. Do you wish to be excused from spelling, reading, or writing?

Laura. No, sir.

Inst. Why not from these as well as from writing composition?

Laura. They are easy, and besides we could not do without them.

Inst. Could you always read, Laura?

Laura. No, sir.

Inst. How is it that you can read now?

Laura. By having learned.

Inst. How long were you in trying to read, before you could read with ease?

Laura. I do not know, it was a long time.

Inst. Did you tell the master that you wished to be excused, and that you never could learn, and that you could not read in a way fit to be heard?

Laura. No, I did not.

Inst. I saw you knitting and sewing the other day; could you always knit and sew?

Laura. I could not.

Inst. How then, can you now?

Laura. Because I have learned.

Inst. How did you learn?

Laura. By trying.

Inst. Did you tell your mother she must excuse you from knitting and sewing, for you did not know how?

Laura. I did not.

Inst. Why did you not?

Laura. I knew if I did not keep trying I could never learn, and so I kept on.

Inst. Do you think it is necessary to know how to write letters, and to express ourselves properly when writing?

Laura. Oh yes, sir.

Inst. You expect to have occasion to write letters, do you not?

Laura. I presume I shall, for I have written to my brother and cousin already.

Inst. Then you think if I should help you learn to write a letter or other piece of composition properly, that I should do you a great benefit?

Laura. I suppose, sir, you would.

Inst. Is it right for me to benefit the school as much as I can, or only in part?

Laura. I suppose, sir, you ought to help them all you can.

Inst. Ought I to help you as much as I can, in learning that which will be a benefit to you?

Laura. Yes, sir.

Inst. Now I will answer you. You asked if I would excuse you from writing? I will do so, if you think I could be justified in neglecting to benefit you all that I can. If you can say sincerely, that you believe it is my duty to do wrong to the school by indulging them in neglecting what they ought to learn, then I will comply with your request.

By a course like the above, the scholar is led to see that you act on principle — that you wish the best good of those committed to your care. The child whom you treat in this way will be led to reflection, and will inquire what views the instructer will take on the subject, before he concludes to come to you with it. He will consider himself treated as a reasonable being, and will be far more likely to govern himself afterward. As far as practicable, explain to the school the reason of every thing you do. Let them know that you regard their good in all the regulations you may make. Explain to them the reason why you consider one thing right and another wrong, and they will

understand you, and they will be governed far more easily than by the whip and ferule. In no way can you so readily conciliate the willing obedience of your scholars as by pursuing this course, and in no way can you sooner make them your enemies, than by the opposite. Reason should be equally your guide in making laws and in executing them — in granting the requests of your scholars and refusing them. First ask yourself, is the request a reasonable one? and after using proper means to know, and taking time to decide, let the decision be such as duty requires. You may not always be able to decide in a moment; if not, take time, remembering that *no decision at all*, is preferable to a wrong one, and while the scholar is waiting to know the opinion you entertain, he will generally be led to reflect on the principles by which you will be governed, and will commonly be prepared to submit to your decision.

The next direction on the subject of government is, *let it be uniform*. Many fail on this point. I am willing to confess it is very difficult to be so, while the health and spirits of most men fluctuate so much as they do. But still, uniformity is indispensable. I have seen some men very strict one day, and very indulgent the next. I have myself been called to account for doing that which at some previous time had appeared to please the master. To approve today, what you punish tomorrow, is certainly very bad management. But to something of this, every teacher is in a greater or less degree exposed, from the different states of temper and spirits in which he finds himself. We can bear fatigue at some times better than at others. When suffering under a head-ache, a school may appear to us very noisy, which at another time would appear very still, so different are the states of the nervous system at different times.

Another fault to which this direction has especial reference, is one that exists in many schools, where the small scholars are strictly governed, while the larger do nearly as they please. I have often seen the child of six years punished severely for a fault, that was hardly noticed when committed by a young man of eighteen. This is unreasonable — it is wicked. If there is to be any difference

in the treatment of the two cases, it should be on the other side. But I would still say, govern the large and small scholars alike. The elder ones should never be suffered to transgress laws which you have made for the government of the whole. They will respect you the less, for indulging them in what is improper; and will show a growing disregard for your feelings and for your authority.

Do you say the oldest scholars are to govern themselves, and that your business is only with the younger ones? Presume not on this. Those who have arrived at years of manhood, *ought* to govern themselves; but they must be different from the great mass of youth, not to need much restraint. When it becomes necessary to establish a rule in the school, see that it is regarded by all; and you will find your task much easier, and will gain the confidence of the whole school more, than by the opposite course.

Another direction on the subject of school-government is, let it always be characterized by *firmness*. This is connected with the preceding direction, but it means more than to govern merely with uniformity. The first question to be decided is, whether the rule you have established be a reasonable one. In regard to this, great care should be taken that you do not misjudge. Your rules should not be numerous, and those which are established, should be well understood. When this is done, see that all your requisitions are strictly complied with. Partial obedience is but little better than disobedience. If you direct a scholar to come to you, and he comes half way and stops, your command is not complied with; he has not obeyed you. Now, if you dispense with your order, after a partial obedience, he must either suppose your command an unreasonable one, or that you have not resolution to see it fully obeyed. The impression on his mind will, in either case, be unhappy; and you had better issue no orders, than command and then dispense with a full obedience. Let it be known as your established rule, that every reasonable requisition must be fully complied with, and you will find it far easier to secure implicit obedience, than, in the other case, to have a partial regard paid to your orders. If a scholar ask

of you some indulgence, be sure to examine its propriety before you say no or yes, to his request. But when you have said *yes* or *no*, adhere to this one answer. To deny the request of a scholar when it is first made, and then in a few minutes, grant what he desires, because he continues asking, is certainly injudicious. If he give a good reason for repeating his request, you may change your direction. But the reason ought to be known at first, and then the answer given with a reference to it.

I have not unfrequently visited schools, where, if a scholar asked leave to go out — the answer was instantly given, "No; sit down." Within a minute the request was repeated—the answer again was "No." But after the question had been repeated half a dozen times, the patience of the master seemed to be exhausted, and he replied, "Yes, yes, I had rather you would go, than to keep asking all the time." Now the impression was left on the mind of that scholar, that the teacher had less regard to what was right or wrong in the case, than he had to his own convenience. He must have considered his teacher as fickle in mind, and therefore his respect for him must have been diminished.

The schoolmaster, harassed by the many questions asked him during the day, is in danger of forming the habit of answering them without consideration, and merely to be rid of them. But instead of preventing, this greatly adds to his inconvenience. The school ought to be taught, that "*no* means *no*, and *yes* means *yes*, and *must* means *must*." You pronounce a word to a scholar for him to spell, and he says he cannot. You tell him to "try," but he still says he cannot spell it. Now if you put it to the next, and suffer him to disobey your order, the influence is decidedly bad. It is reasonable that he should try, if you have ordered him to do so; and your requirement should not be abandoned. Shew a determination to be exactly obeyed in every reasonable direction, and let this determination be constant, whether the requirement be trifling or important. Hardly any thing can have a worse effect than to command and not be obeyed — to threaten or promise and not to perform — to make laws and not to insist on their execution. Disorder and confusion must be

the consequence. Scholars will very soon learn to disregard all that you say — will disbelieve your promises and neglect your commands. If you punish disobedience, this will excite anger, because you had threatened a punishment for the same offence before, but had not inflicted it. When punishment excites anger only, it does no good. I will only add that without firmness of purpose in the government of a school, it will be impossible to make that school pleasant to the teacher or profitable to the pupil.

LECTURE VII.

THE subject of government was commenced in the last lecture, and will be continued in this. The next direction to which I wish to call your attention is—*Let the government of the school be impartial.* In this direction I do not wish to imply that you are to exercise the same feelings towards every individual in the school. The good instructer will love, and he ought to love, the good scholar more than the bad. He cannot, and he will not feel an equal regard for the obedient and the disobedient — for the docile and the perverse. But, notwithstanding this, he should be impartial. The law for one should be the law for all. Though you cannot love an idle, heedless, unmannerly boy, so much as the affectionate, studious, and obedient one, still you should govern them alike. When the good scholar commits a fault, if you neglect to call him to account for it, and punish a less agreeable scholar for a similar offence, the latter will accuse you of injustice, and with good cause. For if you have made a law, it is for the whole school, and should be regarded by all.

No complaint is more frequently heard, than that the instructer is partial — that he treats one better than another, &c. This sometimes proceeds from distrust on the part of parents, occasioned sometimes by listening to the

tales of children, told when they have been punished. Without great care on the part of the master, he will be betrayed into a greater or less degree of the fault above named, every day. There may, indeed, be sometimes a propriety in making a difference in the treatment of the same crime under different circumstances. The same law may be broken by two persons, and very different degrees of criminality be attached to each. The man who passes you a counterfeit dollar ignorantly, breaks the letter of the law, as much as the knave who passes it knowingly. But the first is guilty of no intentional fraud. One scholar may transgress a reasonable rule of the school, and may have been led to it by the persuasion of those older or better informed than himself; while another is guilty of the same offence, without any palliating circumstances. There may be a propriety in treating them very differently, and in so doing you need not be guilty of partiality. When the circumstances are the same, the treatment should be uniform.

Partiality, if exhibited in your treatment of scholars, will deprive you of their confidence. Children are not slow to discover it, where it exists, and when they believe that one of their number may do wrong and go unpunished, while another will be treated with severity for the same offence, it is impossible to exert any useful influence over them. There is a loss of improvement to them, and much inconvenience to the master; and not only this, but he is guilty of doing wrong, and must suffer the reproof of his own conscience.

Finally, in the government of the school, consult not only your own convenience and the *present* welfare of the scholars, but pursue such a course as shall produce the most *lasting* results. To do this, the instructer must be *master* in all places and at all hours. It is not enough that you govern and restrain them during school hours; but you must regard their conduct, at all other times when they are not under the care of their parents. I have sometimes been acquainted with instructers who seemed to care for the behaviour of their pupils only while they were in school. By a proper course the master may as easily direct

the amusement and play of his scholars, as their studies, and it is hardly less important that he should do so. For this purpose, he ought to show an interest in their sports, and a willingness that they should amuse themselves during the usual intermissions of study. The difference between different kinds of exercise or amusement should be carefully pointed out, and such as may be injurious should be prohibited. Such as may corrupt the morals or the taste, and such as have a tendency to injure the health or limbs, should be discountenanced. In general, such exercises as tend to excite jealousies and hatred, or to interest the mind so much as to divert it from books and study, together with all the games of hazard and chance, are prejudicial, and should be forbidden. The tendency of all such, is bad. Many of them prevent progress in study, and all of them are injurious to the morals of the scholars. In those districts, where the male and female members continue at the schoolroom, during intermission, the subject of proper exercise requires much more attention, than in villages where they return to their parents. Every exercise that is immodest or unbecoming should be prohibited, and whatever would give offence to delicate minds, of either sex, cannot be approved.

In order to be able to exercise a full and judicious control, it will be very important that the school should know what you approve and what you disapprove, and the reasons on which your opinion is founded. Exercise or play, proper in one school, may be impracticable or inexpedient in another. There may be circumstances that will have a very important influence in directing your recommendation of exercise. It should be your object to examine what may be attended with the fewest evils and the greatest good.

There is another point on which I wish to make a passing remark. It relates to *the manner of speaking* in the school, proper to be observed both by teacher and pupil.

It will generally be found true, that the mode of address adopted by the teacher in speaking to the scholars, will be copied by them in addressing each other. Every

thing dictatorial, lordly and austere should be avoided. A spirit of affection should be infused into the whole school. Ask a scholar to do what you desire, in just such a tone as you would naturally use in asking a favour of a superior. Never command till the pupil has neglected to do as you requested him. It is very ill-judged to display your authority before there is any encroachment upon it, or any disposition shown to disregard it.

Perhaps there is no way, in which the children may be led to speak kindly and affectionately to each other, so easily, as by the example of the teacher in speaking kindly and affectionately to them. And if any suppose that they are adding to their dignity and importance in the estimation of their scholars, by assuming airs of great superiority or lordliness, such persons must have very little knowledge of human nature, and of the art of pleasing. President Monroe lost none of his dignity, when, during his tour to New England, he cordially took the children by the hand, and spoke kindly and affectionately to them.

If it is ever necessary to call a child to account for improper conduct, the same affectionate manner is recommended. I would much rather say to a child whom I saw breaking some important rule of the school —"John, you may come to me," than to say "Come here, John." The more he sees you benevolent, kind and affectionate, the more plainly he will see the impropriety of breaking those laws, which are designed by you for his own benefit.

In this connexion, it will be expected, that I say something on the subject of punishment; for, after the greatest fidelity and discretion on the part of an instructer, there will be some, who will not yield a reasonable and cheerful obedience. Such must be punished both for their own reformation and as a warning to others. It would be doing injustice to those who are well disposed, to suffer the bad, by their frequent mis-conduct, to prevent them from making the progress they desire.

I have already supposed a case where a scholar was found guilty of doing wrong, and have pointed out the way in which I would proceed in that particular case. To

continue the subject of government, I shall now give you a few general directions.

1. *Never be in haste, to believe that a pupil has done wrong;* and be not in haste to accuse him. If not guilty, he feels grieved that you should suppose him to be so. After having been wrongfully accused, he will probably have less dread of doing wrong than before,—for he already feels in some measure degraded, in having been supposed guilty. It is a principle in the civil law, "to suppose every man innocent till he is found guilty." In every case, an inquiry for evidence of the fact, ought to precede our accusation. To make inquiry for evidence to prove the *innocence* of a scholar, may often be attended with happy consequences. If acquitted by the evidence adduced in his favour, he will love his teacher the better for having pursued this course; and if proved guilty, he will be more likely to be affected by what you may say to him.

2. Be not *in haste to punish* when a fault is committed. Your first object should be, to converse with the scholar, to show him the nature of his crime, and to convince him that he has done that which, if every one followed his example, would destroy the usefulness of the school. If his crime be that of profaneness, lying, or any thing in direct violation of the laws of God, to those all-wise laws he should be referred. The awful consequences of these vices to himself, should be expressly shown. Their effect on the school, if others should follow his example, and their effect on every community, if all should be guilty of them, ought to be clearly exhibited. After this, he may be required to commit to memory those passages in Scriptures, which show with what abhorrence the Supreme Being looks upon these enormities, and, when he has had sufficient time to reflect on the subject, he will be in a state to be profited by the punishment. I would recommend to you never to punish an offence the same day on which it is committed. The scholar will usually endeavour to forget the subject, when the punishment is over, but he cannot, when he knows it is to come. It may, at times, be proper to defer it for two or three days, or a week. Whenever the time arrives, it should be attended to, to the exclusion of

every thing else. Before being punished, he should be interrogated concerning the degree of punishment, which he thinks his crime deserves, and if he appears to view his offence as more trifling than he ought, it is important to make him sensible, if possible, of his errour. If you *must* punish, do it with seriousness. To exhibit any levity, to laugh while you are inflicting punishment, must always be attended with bad consequences. The sufferer cannot feel otherwise than indignant. He will have good reason to accuse you of a wanton delight in cruelty, rather than to give you the credit of having a desire to do him a benefit.

3. Decide on such a mode as will be most likely to benefit the scholar, and *prevent a repetition*, of the crime. Those punishments which have an effect on the body only, usually do little to prevent crime, or reclaim the guilty. As far as possible strive to have it a punishment that will affect the mind, rather than the body. To require the delinquent to ask forgiveness of the master, or of the school —sometimes to require him to read a written confession to the school, or to parents, or guardians, will have the desired effect. Much must be left to the judgment of the master at the time. Punishment should be varied with the disposition, age, or circumstance of the scholar, or the nature of his offence. It is undoubtedly true, that corporal punishment should be the last resort. When every thing else fails, you may have recourse to that. It is sometimes necessary — it sometimes does good. But yet I am fully persuaded it is seldom necessary. Where a reasonable, calm, and decided course is adopted,— where an instructer makes an appeal to the moral sensibility of the child, and shows him the nature of his fault, experience has satisfied me, that recourse to it will not be necessary, except in a few instances, where the child seems devoid of sensibility, or where he has been neglected till his passions are too strong to be controlled by his reason.

4. Always make the punishment *effectual*. This rule is important, whether the punishment be of one kind or another. If the child deserves the punishment, it should not pass off, till he is brought to feel it as such, and to realize the nature of the crime, which he has committed.

It is sometimes true, that a child punished but slightly, is only injured, and not benefited by it. He boasts that his chastisement did not hurt him — that he does not care, and sometimes that he loves to be punished. Now if the subject passes off in such a way it would have been better, probably, to have neglected punishment entirely. His chastisement does him no good, if it does not humble him, and cause him to fear being brought again under the censure of his instructer.

Connected with punishments, is the subject of rewards. These may sometimes be beneficial, but, as they are usually bestowed, they probably do as much harm as good. To promise a reward is often an excitement to study, for the sake of the reward; not as a duty, or from a love of learning, or a desire to merit the approbation of the wise and good.

When a prize is offered to a number of competitors, those who hope to gain it, will be excited to emulation and to envy; and those, who have no such hope, will usually be discouraged, and probably make less progress, than if no reward has been offered. I would advise you to *promise* no rewards, and if you ever give them, let such honours be grounded on the excellence of the scholar, his industry, and faithfulness, rather than the amount of knowledge he obtains in a given time. One scholar may require a week to learn, what another will accomplish in a day. If the former perseveres and is faithful in his slow and toilsome progress, he is to be commended rather than the other, for he has greater obstacles to encounter, and has succeeded in overcoming them. It is not impossible, but he may be the most benefitted of the two. For it is commonly true, that those who learn very easily, forget as easily, while those who learn slowly, remember what they have acquired. It is not unusual for the slow gains of the mechanic, to be eventually more productive than the rapid and golden streams of the merchant.

If rewards are given at all, let them be "rewards of merit," and not rewards of intellectual capacity. The dull of apprehension are not to be punished for being so,

neither do the more gifted *merit* praise, for what they have received from the hand of God.

LECTURE VIII.

In connexion with the subject of the last Lecture, I wish to call your attention to the *general management of your schools.* This is a subject of much consequence; for though you may be able to govern with ease, yet it is possible that you may fail, by ill-directed effort, of accomplishing all that is reasonably expected of you. Though you may fail in every thing without good government, yet government alone will not accomplish all the objects of a school.

In the general management of a school, it is important to keep in mind always the great object for which it is designed. That object is, to prepare children to be happy; and to be useful to themselves and others — to teach them how to acquire knowledge and to apply it. In a word, the purpose of education is to teach how to think and how to act in all the vicissitudes of life. The general management of a school, then, must be guided by a reference to these objects. It should regard both the present enjoyment, and the future good of its members.

1. Endeavour to adopt such a course as shall render the school *pleasant* to those who compose it. If children are brought to associate with the school, a variety of agreeable objects, they will be led to think of study as a pleasure, and delight in it. We are all much affected by the objects around us: if these are pleasant, we are pleased; if these are gloomy or disgusting, it is hardly possible for us to be cheerful. If we see others smile or weep we are disposed to do the same. Let the teacher of a school wear a smiling countenance,— let him appear happy, and desirous of making others so, and he will hardly fail of seeing smiling faces and contented looks around him.

2. Reduce every thing to system. This will have a great tendency to promote what is required in the previous advice. By means of system much more can be accomplished than is possible without it. Irregularity is the enemy of happiness, and where it extensively prevails, it equally prevents success in business. By having a time for every thing, and doing everything in season, you will be enabled to avoid confusion, to know what to do, and to take pleasure in doing it. But if you wait for the subjects to present themselves before you think what to do, twenty things may sometimes come up at once, and in your perplexity to choose among them, you are unprepared to attend to any. He who tries to do many things at once, will accomplish nothing. "He that has many irons in the fire must let some of them burn."

In order to introduce system, do only one thing at a time. An instructer called a class to read, and in a moment a scholar wished for a copy; the master neglected his class and prepared to set one; while doing that, a boy came with a pen to be mended, and before this was done, another wished to be assisted in his arithmetic. While mending the pen and looking at the slate, another came and wished to be shown some place on his atlas; the pen and the slate were neglected, and the copy and the class, and two or three minutes were devoted to finding the name on the map. Several other calls were made at once, and the master neglected all the former to scold the latter for making him so much trouble. Here were ten or twelve scholars, all waiting—all doing nothing excepting the *class* which had kept on reading, pronouncing half the words wrong, and neglecting every rule which would have rendered the exercise useful. They were then told they had read enough, and that they might sit down. The other matters were dispatched after a while, another class was called to read, and a similar course was pursued. Now, how, in the name of common sense, can a master endure this?—what benefit can the scholar derive? He had no plan—no system—no order. Hence he could not avoid confusion and perplexity. In all sorts of business, system is of great consequence; in schools, it is indispensable.

In order to have system, it is necessary to do but one thing at a time; to have a time for everything, and to attend to it at that time. While the class is reading, the entire attention of the teacher should be given to that exercise. He will thus be able to give useful instructions. When a class is called to spell, let this receive the entire attention of both master and scholars. The same should be observed in regard to writing, grammar, arithmetic, geography, &c. In this way, every thing will be done, and done without confusion. But by having no system, much must be neglected, that should receive attention, and what even does receive it, is but poorly done.

3. Another direction, which I wish to give in regard to general management, is, let every thing be done thoroughly, when it is once commenced. It may be said, perhaps, that there is not time; and that the school is so large, it is impossible to go through with the required exercises. Now if this be true, I would still insist on the direction to do every thing thoroughly, when it is commenced. If a subject of study can be attended to but once a day, or but once in two days, the scholar will derive more advantage from one lesson in two days, if well recited and properly explained, than he can from half a dozen, if but half recited and not explained. In teaching, as in other matters, the old adage is true, that "work well done is twice done."

4. Let subjects be classed according to their importance, and receive a proportionate attention. Some instructers have been known to spend a large part of their time, in teaching a small class who were pursuing a favourite branch. In this manner studies vastly important to the majority of scholars have received very little attention. If the master is himself much better pleased with grammar than with arithmetic, and has a class of five in that, while there are fifteen in this, he does great injury to the fifteen, if he spends double the time with the five, that he does with the fifteen. And yet if he happen to be more fond of teaching grammar than arithmetic, he is very prone to do so.

Those subjects which we have occasion most frequently

to use, are more important to us, than those which we seldom wish to employ. Reading and spelling are more important than geography, because without a knowledge of the former, we are deprived of more means of knowledge, than by a want of acquaintance with the latter. We have occasion to employ our knowledge of reading much more frequently than a knowledge of geography. So arithmetic is more important than grammar, because we find occasion to use it in the business of life, much oftener, than we do the rules of syntax, to which we attend at school. The instructer should endeavour to divide his time so as to give to each particular subject, that degree of attention which properly belongs to it. It is manifestly wrong for him to give an undue portion of his time to some one subject, merely because he has a greater taste for it than for some other.

The *direction of studies,* will next claim your attention. The best rule I can give you on this point, is to follow the order of nature. Let those subjects receive attention first, which may be most easily understood and comprehended by children—and then follow in the order, which common sense would dictate. The children, placed under your instruction, will ordinarily be such as have received some instruction in reading, and will be able to call the letters of the alphabet by their names, and perhaps pronounce them when united in easy syllables. At least I shall suppose this in the following remarks, and reserve those which I have to make, on instructing children at an earlier age, for the lecture, that will be addressed particularly to female teachers. When the child has acquired so much knowledge of reading, as to be able to give a proper pronunciation to syllables and words, his attention should be directed to the *meaning of words.* Words are signs of ideas, and it is an object of high importance that a very early habit should be formed, of knowing the meaning of the words he pronounces. He is not able to have recourse to a dictionary, and of course it must devolve on the teacher to explain them. This should, as much as possible, be done by means of sensible objects. Some little story, in which the word occurs, may be re-

lated to the child, which will often fix the meaning permanently in his mind; or the word may be explained by its opposite. I shall pursue this subject in the lecture before mentioned, and will only add here, that too much effort cannot be used to lead the child very early to an acquaintance with the meaning of words.

Much attention should be given at this time to pronunciation. This will be learned mostly from the example of the teacher. His pronunciation will be theirs. Great care is necessary in forming a good pronunciation, because it is as easy to learn right, as wrong at first, and when one has learned wrong, it requires much time and care first to unlearn, and then to learn anew.

Children are capable at a very early age, of understanding something of numbers. They can be taught to enumerate and to read figures, much earlier than has been supposed, as has been fully proved in infant schools. They should be taught to add, subtract, multiply and divide, by the aid of corns, and other tangible or visible objects. By this process they will be able to form distinct ideas of the nature and combination of numbers.

I would not be understood to imply, that children at a very early age will be able to comprehend the more complex operations of arithmetic, but the simple rules, are easily made intelligible.

Geography may be an early study. Having a picture or map before him, the child will be able to understand a subject, which he could not without such ocular demonstration. Children are almost always pleased with pictures, and as maps are pictures of places, they are usually pleased with them. Hence they are interested in this study at an age when it would be impossible to engage their attention in the exercise of memory alone.

History is a subject that may be next recommended to children. They are commonly pleased with stories, and where the terms made use of in little histories, are such as they can comprehend, and the facts in the narrative are prominent, they will be amused and interested. It is desirable, that the geography and history first used should be of one's own town, state, or country.

After some attention has been paid to these subjects, the scholar will be prepared to attend profitably to arithmetic and geography in a more thorough manner, and to pursue those parts, which would not at first have been intelligible or interesting.

Grammar may in its most simple parts, be early understood and rendered interesting. But the child requires judgment, to be able to apply the syntactical rules to language. After some knowledge of these branches has been gained, it is not so important what others shall follow them. It will be important, however, to have regard constantly to the probable destination of the child. It would be improper to direct the preparatory studies of a merchant or mechanic, in the same manner as those of him who intends to be a schoolmaster or a physician.

LECTURE IX.

In calling your attention to the *manner of teaching*, a subject of very great importance is presented to your notice; and though I may fail of giving you the best directions, I shall endeavour to suggest to you some valuable thoughts.

In the first place, I would have you guard yourselves against supposing that your whole duty consists in enabling your scholars to acquire a knowledge of the books, put into their hands for the purpose of study. This will be but a part, and sometimes the least part of your duty. It is the subject, not the book, which is more important. The book is the instrument which you are to teach them how to use, in order to obtain the knowledge desired. To direct and assist them in this, and to teach them to exercise their own powers, and elicit their own strength, is the principal duty of an instructer.

In teaching, let it be your first object to have every thing understood. In persuing any book, if the language

is unintelligible, or even some of the most important words are not understood, we obtain no *distinct* ideas. But let the thoughts be clothed in language with which we are familiar, and our attention is fixed—we are pleased and instructed; we then obtain ideas, and may receive some benefit.

Perhaps, hardly any thing is more common, than for instructers to presume that their scholars understand a subject, when they do not. This error is increased by the decision of the pupil himself. "Do you understand this?" is often asked him, and he answers "yes." No effort is made to know whether he understands it or not. The presumption that he does, satisfies the instructer, and the benefit, which he might derive, is lost to the child. The master should interrogate the scholar, till he knows whether he understands the subject, and if it should be found that he does, there will be an additional benefit to the pupil in this very exercise of his powers in explaining it.

"I know, but cannot tell," is a reply which has been given a thousand times, by children, and youth, when I have asked a reason for rules and principles. "Why will it prove your sum, to reject the 9s after performing an operation in one of the simple rules; and how do you know that this is a proper mode of proof?" "I know, but cannot tell." The scholar is *honest.* He supposes he does know, because he finds that the directions of his rule will be proved by the operation. But still he has not a single distinct idea upon the subject.

A willingness to trust to the scholar's own opinion, has led many instructers, qualified to be useful, to fail in doing them that service which they might otherwise have done them. Take nothing on trust, but question and examine till you *know* that they understand the subject, and have correct views of its bearings on other subjects. When this is done, you will have done your duty, and not till then.

2. In your teaching, use the most simple mode of illustration. If an illustration be as little understood as the subject to be illustrated, the scholar remains as ignor-

ant as before. If even only one or two of the important words in the illustration are unintelligible, the scholar still remains ignorant. "Will you please tell me why I carry one for every ten?" said little Laura to her instructer. "Yes, my dear," said he, kindly. "It is because numbers increase from right to left in a decimal ratio." Laura sat, and repeated it to herself two or three times, and then looked very sad. The master, as soon as he had answered, pursued his other business, and did not notice her. But sat, and repeated it to herself two or three times, and, then if he had used words of another language. "Decimal" and "ratio" were words that might have fallen on her ear before, but if so, she understood them none the better for it. She looked in the dictionary and was disappointed again, and after some time put away her arithmetic. When asked why she did so, she replied, "I don't like to study it, I can't understand it."

Now the injury to little Laura was very great. She had commenced the study with interest; she had learned to answer a great many questions in arithmetic, and had been pleased. She was now using a slate and writing her figures on it, and had found the direction to carry one for every ten. This she might have understood. The master loved his scholars and wished to benefit them, but *forgot that terms perfectly plain to him, would be unintelligible to the child.* From that moment, Laura disliked arithmetic, and every effort that could be used with her, could not efface the impression, that it was a hard study, and she could not understand it.

Unimportant as this circumstance may appear to you, it made an impression on my own mind, which will not be effaced, while I am engaged in teaching youth. Indeed, the importance of the directions will be illustrated to you by a reference to your own history. You perhaps recollect many efforts to explain a thing to you, which have left you no wiser than before. Fail not then to use such language, as can be understood by the child or by the class. Be very careful lest they associate the idea of study with that of hard unintelligible words, and thus become discouraged in their attempt to learn. It is of great im-

portance, that the objects used to illustrate, should be those, with the properties of which the pupil is acquainted. If you employ, in the way of illustration, any object with the character of which the scholar is unacquainted, he is not in the least assisted. But if you can seize on something that he can see, or that he can recollect, or something with which he is familiar, and then make a just comparison by which the idea is brought distinctly to his view, he derives not only a lasting benefit, but present pleasure. For example—James came to his teacher and told him he could not understand his map. He had just begun to learn a little of the geography of his own state. The master called him to the desk and took up a slate, and gave him a pencil, and then asked him if he could draw a picture of the school-room floor. James at once made his lines for the boundaries. "Now which is the east end?" James told. "Which is the west?" This he told also. "This is the north and that is the south." "Now," said the instructer, "we will mark them E. for east," &c. "Now in what part is my desk, James?" "There," said the little fellow. "Where is the fire place?" "There," said James. "Now James, make marks for the boys' seats, and the girls' seats." He did this. "Now make marks for the doors and windows." This was done. "Now," said the master, "James, do you think you could make a map?" "No, sir," he replied. "Why yes you could, you have made one already," said the master. "This is a map of the floor. Now the map, which you said you could not understand, is nothing more than this. There is a line for the east side, and there is another for the west side, and there is one for the north, and there is another for the south. Now these lines go round the whole state. This river is put down here, because it is in the northern part, and that river is represented there, because it is in the western. This river is drawn here because it makes the eastern boundary of the state. Now look along here, and see if you can find the name of the town in which we live." "O yes," said James, "here it is." "Why is it put down here?" "Because it is in the east part of the state and touches the river," said the child. The master asked him

half a dozen similar questions, and James returned to his seat delighted. The simple illustration made every thing easy. The other scholars were as much pleased as he, and when they were dismissed, were in high spirits, saying they would make a map of their gardens, orchards, &c. when they got home.

3. My next direction is, Let it be your object to make every study as *pleasant* as possible. Nor do I conceive that this direction implies any thing impracticable or even difficult, though the inquiry has been made, how it is possible to create a love of study in the mind of those who have no taste for it. "I feel little hesitation in asserting, that no such scholar ever existed," says Parkhurst, "unless he has been brought to feel this indifference or aversion, by injudicious treatment on the part of parents or instructers. If parents or instructers love knowledge for its own sake, and always *speak* of study as a privilege and a source of pleasure, children will be prepossessed in favour of it before they begin; and if they at school receive easy lessons, and such as they can understand; if these lessons are explained to them in language adapted to their capacity, and if such questions are asked as will bring other faculties of the mind as well as memory into exercise, they will find study as pleasant as they anticipated. If teachers expect it to be pleasant to their scholars, they will endeavour to present the subject to them in such a light that they may find it so." This is always an object of importance, and "even in cases where parents counteract the impression which the teacher wishes to make, he may, by well directed efforts, notwithstanding these discouragements, generally meet with such success as will confirm his opinion," that children may be brought to love learning for its own sake, and be pleased with the acquisition of knowledge. "If the scholar is enabled to gain new ideas, or to form new combinations of those already gained," he cannot avoid being pleased. "Hence it is an object of primary importance" to teach them such things as "they can understand either by their own reflections, or aided by the explanations and illustrations given them. What I recommend in this and in several previous direc-

tions, appears to have been achieved by Pestalozzi. Madame de Stael, in speaking of his school, says, "It is a remarkable circumstance, that neither punishment nor reward is necessary to excite his pupils in their labours." This is perhaps the first instance, where a school of one hundred and fifty children has succeeded without having recourse to the principles of emulation or fear. How many bad feelings are spared, when every emotion of jealousy and disappointed ambition is removed from the heart, and when the scholar sees not in his companions rivals, or in his teacher a judge. Here the object is not to excel, not to succeed in a competition for superiority, but to make a progress, to advance towards an end, at which they all aim with equal integrity and sincerity of intention.

If *one* teacher has succeeded to make every thing so pleasant, that his scholars are interested and delighted with their studies, the same end *may be* and, indeed, it *has been* accomplished in other cases. Let it then be the endeavour of every one employed in teaching to render the lessons of his pupils pleasant. It will be done by exhibiting the importance of the study—showing its usefulness—exhibiting its connexions with business and enjoyment, and, by making the study plain and intelligible, by familiar illustration and explanation. This will not be done without effort, and *persevering* effort; but this is most reasonable, where so much is dependent on it.

After the preceding remarks, it will be my next object to point out to you, such a course in treating the different branches of study, as may be best calculated to benefit those placed under your care. I may not be able perhaps to give you the *best* ideas on this subject, but I shall venture to offer you the best which have occurred to me in the course of my reading and experience.

It will be one of your first objects to teach correct spelling. Spelling is an exercise of so much importance, that it should be a part of your daily business to teach it. In order to impress the school with a just sense of its value, you should often speak of its importance, and press it upon their attention. Incorrect spelling is often the

source of much mortification, and of real inconvenience. Let your *own* example be such as to excite others to regard the subject properly, and pay that attention to it which its importance demands. If you write copies for your scholars, be very careful to avoid bad orthography in them. They will copy the *spelling* of words, as well as the form of letters. I have not unfrequently found ridiculous errors in copy books, which have been handed me for inspection, and have sometimes found horrible spelling monstrously united with very good penmanship. The following is a specimen of hundreds which have fallen within my observation. "*A goode skoller rites slow.*" Now where there is such carelessness on the part of the teacher, it is not to be expected, that he should pay that attention which is desirable to the blunders of others.

There are many derivative words in very common use, which are not to be found in the spelling book or dictionary. In order to know how to spell these, the scholar must commit such rules as will apply to them, and by impressing these rules indelibly in his memory, he will not need to hesitate when he wishes to write a word, which may vary in its orthography from the simple word, from which it is derived. There is also a class of words having the same pronunciation, but different in meaning and spelling. The importance of learning to spell these correctly, should be distinctly explained by every teacher. A moment's reflection will be sufficient to convince every one of the great importance of this branch, and I need not dwell on it, farther than to point out one error, which extensively prevails in the habits of country schoolmasters. It is this. In order to make the word easier to be spelled, it is given out with a pronunciation different from that used in reading or conversation. For example—the master puts out the word *immediate.* The *i* in the third syllable, has the sound of *e* in common pronunciation. Instead of sounding it as he ought, he gives the *i* a distinct long sound, in order that the scholar may know that it is not *e.* Thus, im-me-*di*-ate. Now this habit is very injurious to the scholar, for when he wishes to write the word, he will hesitate. The common sound will be on his mind, and he will be very liable to

spell it wrong. Let this be a uniform rule: *Pronounce all words for a class to spell, just as you would pronounce them in reading or conversation.* That is, pronounce them right.

Reading is a subject that will claim much of your attention at school. To read with propriety and elegance is an interesting and valuable accomplishment. It should be the object of every instructer, to have his scholars attend to all the principles there exhibited. By care he may accustom his scholars to read with a due degree of loudness, distinctness and slowness; and to regard the importance of accent, emphasis and cadence. I shall give but few directions on this subject, as you will find more books upon it, than upon most others.

1. When a class is called out to read, devote your whole attention to it. It is a great error to let them read as they please, and disregard the pauses and sense entirely. Let it be known as a regulation of the school, that when a class is reading, no one has leave to ask a question, or to change his place.

2. Require every scholar to pronounce every syllable so distinctly, that you can hear and understand the words. Many instructers fail here, from the fact that they hold a book, and have their eyes on the word that the scholar is pronouncing, and understand what it is from reading it, and not from hearing it read. Hence, it may be well, to hear a class read at least once every day, without taking a book. It will then be easily learned, how many syllables are not distinctly sounded by the young scholar. He should be required to read every sentence till he reads it right. In this way he will be made to improve more in reading a single page, than he otherwise would in reading half his book. It will be advantageous for the master to question the class on the subjects of distinctness, slowness, emphasis, &c. before the lesson is commenced.

3. Be careful to show every scholar the importance and use of the stops or points in reading, and require him to observe them. The pauses and inflections are of very great consequence. Without attention to them, no one can be a good reader. If children form a habit of neglect-

ing them, when young, it will be very hard to correct this habit afterward. What is more disagreeable than monotony? What more unpleasant than to hear all the words of a sentence pronounced alike, or with so rapid an utterance that none are distinct? Much attention should be paid to these directions.

4. Be careful to lead the attention of your class to the character of the lesson to be read; and to make the manner and tone of voice correspond to it. To this direction, a degree of attention adequate to its importance, is seldom paid in district schools. To read a pathetic piece in the same manner as you would read one of Aesop's Fables—or, to read a prayer in the same tone of voice that you would one of the humorous essays of Addison, is certainly unnatural and improper. And yet in many of the schools which I have had occasion to visit, I have heard pieces of very different characters read in the same manner, and I have scarcely ever observed that much attention was paid to the subject. The fault lies with teachers. The directions given in books are disregarded, and the same monotony is permitted which was probably common in the schools they attended when young. I would not say that this remark is universally true. There are exceptions, and I believe there is an increasing attention to this particular, especially in cities and large towns. But the remark will hold true in relation to a great part of the instructers of district schools, especially in country towns.

5. Let it be the object of every teacher, to copy nature in his own reading, and then he will be sure to read with ease to himself and pleasure of his hearers. Scholars will readily copy his tones of voice and manner, and be led to form a taste for this important acquisition. In reading on a mournful or playful subject, the manner and tone of voice will correspond, and the sense of the writer be obtained. As far as possible, we should enter into the feelings of the writer, and utter his words very nearly as we suppose he would utter them, if he were reading his own language to us.

LECTURE X.

THE study of arithmetic will next claim your attention. It is one which may be very early commenced. Indeed as soon as the child has learned to count twenty, he may be taught to add, subtract, multiply and divide. He may thus at a very early age form distinct ideas of the "ground rules of arithmetic." As far as intellectual arithmetic is concerned, I would recommend the use of Mr. Smith's, or Mr. Colburn's excellent little works. Smith's, perhaps has the advantage, as containing the two systems, intellectual and written arithmetic combined.

I shall confine my remarks to the subject of written arithmetic, as taught to the more advanced scholar.

1. Let it be a first object to lead him to investigate the reasons on which the rules are founded. This is a direction of great importance. If he forms the early habit of inquiring why the direction is given for each step in his operation, he will be likely to proceed understandingly from the beginning. But if he is directed to go to his rule, or to commit it to memory, and then apply it to the performance of his operation, he will probably be led to suppose, that when he has obtained a correct answer, he understands his subject. He may go through with a common treatise on arithmetic in this way, and yet not understand the reasons on which the directions in the "ground rules" are founded. "I have cyphered through," is often said by a young man, who in fact would find it very difficult to explain the reasons of the rule given for multiplication or division.

With all the attention such pay to arithmetic, they are but poorly prepared for the common transactions of life. Many persons are aware of this, and therefore provide themselves with a "cyphering book," and write down the operations in that for future use. In this way much more time is spent, than would be necessary for gaining a knowledge of the subject, adequate to the wants of life.

When any engage in this study, whether they are beginners or not, it is proper for you to begin with the simple rules, and question them on all the principles which have led to their formation. If the pupil can give you proper answers, it is well; if not, let him examine and search. Afford him assistance if he cannot find out the meaning for himself. If possible, let that assistance be given in such a way, as shall make him his own teacher. What I mean, is, ask him such questions, as will lead him to the right track, and will make him necessarily come to a just reason, and to a satisfactory conclusion.

I may be better understood, perhaps by an example. A class is called to recite the rule of multiplication.

Inst. What is multiplication?

Class. "Multiplication teaches, having two numbers given, to find a third, which shall contain either of the given numbers, as often as the other contains a unit."

Inst. Well, so your book says, but what does it mean? Can either of you explain it so that John, who has just commenced the rule, can understand it?

Class. (After hesitating some time). No, sir, we cannot.

Inst. Think: cannot you use some other language which will make it plainer?

Class. May it not be called a short way of adding?

Inst. Yes, and that explains it much better than the long definition which you recited. Can you tell me now why it may be called short addition?

Class. Because it is the same as adding one of the numbers as many times to itself as there are units in the other. If we wish to multiply 3 by 5 it will be the same as writing three 5 times, or five 3 times and adding them together.

Inst. Very well, now tell me why two numbers are given, and not any more, to perform the operation?

Class. If there be more than one multiplicand, there must be two answers, and if there be more than one multiplier, the multipliers will be component parts of each other, and therefore would be but one in reality.

Inst. Why do you place one under the other?

Class. To make the operation more convenient. The work might be done, if the numbers were differently placed.

The instructer may proceed to ask the following questions. Why do you begin at the right hand to multiply? Why do you multiply the whole multiplicand, with the right hand figure of the multiplier, before you multiply with the others? When you begin to multiply with the second figure, why do you put the product one place to the left of the first figure of the line above it? What is the value of the first product figure, in the second line, is it units or tens? When you have taken the third figure of the multiplier, why do you set the first figure of the product still farther to the left, and under the figure by which you multiply? What is the value of the first figure in the third line of the product, is it units, tens, or hundreds? Why do you add all the lines of the product, in order to get your answer?

How do you prove the result? How do you cast out the 9s? Why will this prove it? Will it prove it to cast out the 7s or 8s? Why not? Why do you take 9 rather than another number? Is there any other number that will prove it? Why will 3 answer as well as 9?

If the multiplier be 9, how can the work be shortened? Why will placing as many cyphers at the right of the multiplicand, as you have 9s in the multiplier, and then subtracting the multiplicand once out, give the same answer as to multiply by the 9s contained in the multiplier?

Answers to all these questions will be necessary, in order to make the rule intelligible. But many of them are those that the scholar will not, perhaps, think of, unless they be asked him by the teacher.

What I wish to inculcate by the direction I have given is, that you proceed in a similar way through every rule. And if any of the answers cannot be given by your scholars, after opportunity is afforded them to try, let your own explanation be as simple as possible.

It is a useful exercise for a pupil to form a set of questions for himself to such rule, before being examined

upon it. After he has thus formed all the questions he is able, you may make such additions as you think requisite. In this way he will be led to reflect on the rule, and will strive to understand the principles on which it is founded. He will not only gain more knowledge, but he will gain it in a way that will enable him to retain it longer, and apply it more readily, than by the common method.

Geography is a subject, which will undoubtedly claim considerable attention in your schools. To teach it in the best way is desirable, and though I may not adduce any new thoughts on the subject, I still wish to call your attention to it a moment.

The mode generally pursued is to present a child with a map of the world; to teach him its general divisions, and how to distinguish them on the map, and how to bound them, &c. This mode has been approved by most instructers, but I am willing to confess, it has appeared to me the very opposite of the course, that nature would direct. Why should we attempt to teach a child what he cannot comprehend? Why should he learn the names of continents, islands, oceans, seas and lakes, rivers and mountains, many thousands of miles distant, before he is taught the geography of his own town, county, state, and country?

But a want of suitable works on this subject will render it impossible to adopt a course such as I shall recommend, except in a few states.*

Where it is practicable, therefore, let the child be taught something of the geography of his own neighbourhood and especially of his own state, before he commences the study of it, in a more extended manner. Let him be taught the boundaries of his own town; the names and situation of its mountains, rivers, ponds, and other interesting particulars. Then the same things may be taught him of the adjoining towns, and of the county and state. By this mode, he will be led to form some ideas of distance and the size of places. He will be prepared to learn the same things in regard to other states, and his country and

*Works have been published containing the geography of New Hampshire and Vermont, designed for the benefit of children in those states.

continent. From his own he may pass to other countries and continents, until the features of the world are in succession brought distinctly to his view.

As the above course would be a novelty in many places at the present time, I shall not dwell upon it, but give a few general directions.

1. Endeavour to have the outlines, the more general parts in this study, the first learned and very thoroughly acquired. These should always be distinguished from the subjects in detail. They will be a guide to other knowledge, and will without doubt be better remembered, than if associated with a multiplicity of facts in detail.

2. Prominent facts in geography may be learned in such a way as to be remembered with greater ease. As far as practicable, let this be done. The mode pursued by Mr. Goodrich and Mr. Woodbridge, may be adopted even if it should not be convenient to use either of their works. By being furnished with the works yourselves, you may use them so as to have them benefit a class furnished with some other.

3. Make it an object to exhibit the facilities of obtaining the necessaries and conveniences of life, furnished by different climates and countries, also the inconveniences and privations peculiar to any section of the world on which the lesson of the class may be. This is recommended for the purpose of comparison with our own happy land, and for showing the general providence of God, which has so constituted things, that one part of the world is dependent on another for some of the conveniences of life; also, for exhibiting the fact, that no part of the world is unprovided with the means of human happiness. To illustrate: where the soil is of the best quality, we seldom find mines of the rich or useful metals. Where these are found, the soil is often such, that agriculture cannot be employed as a source of wealth. The most productive regions of the earth are often visited with dreadful storms and tempests. Troublesome insects, poisonous serpents, and the most ferocious beasts annoy the inhabitants of some parts, where otherwise a residence might almost be compared to one in the Elysian fields.

Scholars will always be interested by remarks on subjects of this kind, and not only so, they will derive lasting benefit from them.

4. Accustom your scholars to draw maps on slates, from recollection. If they know this will be expected of them, they will examine the situation of places, mountains, rivers, &c. with much more attention than otherwise, and will probably retain the knowledge which they acquire, much better than if not required to attend to this exercise. The instructer, at the close of the recitation, should examine the slates, and point out the deficiencies or errors. The *outline maps* in the improved Atlas, accompanying Morse's popular Geography, may be used with great advantage.

English Grammar is a study important to all, and is one which you will be expected to teach. The modes pursued by instructers are so various, and the views entertained by writers so different, that we are very far from having arrived at any uniform system. Unquestionably each author supposes his own work complete or nearly so. Some authors have written much better than others, but while there is such a diversity, I shall not select any one on which to apply the few directions for teaching, which I propose to give you.

To say that the mode of teaching grammar, most usual in district schools requires correction, is saying merely what is proved by the fact, that it is usually considered dry and uninteresting by a great majority who attend to it; and of course very little advancement is made in it. The more usual method is to put a book into the hand of the scholar, and require him to commit certain parts of it to memory, and, when this is done, he is called upon to parse sentences and apply the rules of syntax. Parsing is continued year after year, without much attention to any thing but deciding on the parts of speech, and applying rules. When he is able to tell the parts of speech at sight, and refer to rules applicable to the several words, he is often called a good grammarian, and is not unfrequently considered qualified to be an instructer of others. But after all, it may be doubted whether he is better acquainted with grammar, than some have been, who have never studied the

rules of syntax. That this mode occupies much time, to little profit, I think must be conceded by all who understand the subject. While I make this remark I wish not to be considered as a convert to the doctrine of those masters who have professed their ability to teach grammar in a month, or even half of that time. But it does appear to me, that time is often, as I have personal experience to prove, misspent and lost, in consequence of not adopting a better system of teaching, than has been usual in primary schools and academies.

If a better mode of teaching than the following can be adopted, I would advise you to pursue it. If you are inclined to judge favourably of the directions I shall give, it will probably be found by you, that the system contains one advantage, at least; that of making the study pleasing. Among a very large number with whom I have pursued it, I have seldom found any, who complained that grammar was unpleasant or dry.

1. Let it be an object to explain to your scholars what grammar is, and the importance of understanding the nature of their own language. This must lead them to see that in attending to this study, they are not learning that which is useless or unnecessary. They will be made acquainted with its usefulness by familiar illustration, and when this is accomplished, they will commence the study with far more interest than otherwise. The exact meaning of the four subjects, on which it treats, should be fully explained. The child often has not the most distant idea, that while he is learning to spell words, he is learning grammar. Etymology is often unintelligible; but show him how words are derived from each other, and how the part of speech is effected by varying the word, and he will become interested. To illustrate:—Take the word *man,* and show him how many words come from it, or require him to tell all the words which he can recollect, and then explain the meaning which each has, and why they are classed with different parts of speech; as, *man,* a noun; *to man,* a verb; *manning,* a participle; *manful,* an adjective; *manfully,* an adverb; and *manliness,* another noun. By an exercise of this kind he will be pleased, and will be obtaining the

meaning of many words, which he otherwise would not learn. After he has formed the habit of distinguishing the derivative from the primitive, the scholar may be told that this as well as spelling, is a part of grammar.

2. When it becomes proper to have a scholar begin the grammar or text book, let him first learn the definition of the most common parts of speech, as, the noun, pronoun and verb. Then let him take a sentence and select all the nouns in it, and tell why they are nouns,— all the pronouns, and tell why they are pronouns, and all the verbs, and tell why they are verbs. The next lesson may be to learn the different kinds of nouns, and articles, and what belongs to each, and then he should select the nouns in a sentence, and tell why they are nouns; what kind and why — what number and why — what gender and why — what person and why; also, the articles, and tell why they are articles, what kind, and why of that kind. Let the scholar proceed in this way through the pronoun and through the verb, and then learn the other parts of speech. He should then be taught to parse all the words of a sentence in course, and tell what each word is, and give his reasons for every thing he says about it. In this way he will learn understandingly, and will be able to see why those definitions and rules have been given, which he has been called upon to commit to memory.

After he can demonstrate easily, he may be directed to commit some of the most important rules of syntax, and to apply them to the language which he parses. He should be asked when he says "the nominative case governs a verb," or a "verb agrees with its nominative case," how the rule applied to the phrase in question, and on what principle it is founded? and, though he may not be able to give an answer, yet, by having been asked the question, he will be more likely to recollect the explanation which you may give, and be able to repeat it when you ask him again.

A mode like the above, pursued through the whole course of grammar will leave nothing dark to the mind of the scholar. He will understand as fast as he proceeds, and will find nothing hard.

3. When the rules of syntax are acquired and he can

apply them with facility, he will be prepared to analyze sentences, and should be taught to distinguish between a sentence and a phrase — a simple and compound sentence, and also to know what are the principal parts of a sentence, as, the subject, attribute and object.

The exercise of showing how words are derived one from another should be continued, and the pupil be accustomed to point out the parts of speech which may come from a single word. He will by this be able to see the dependence of one word upon another, and learn to discriminate the character of each.

In this connexion I would recommend giving him sentences, in which there is some grammatical error, for him to detect, and to give his reason for thinking it an error. This exercise is very important, as it will lead him to guard against errors in the formulation of sentences, and will help him to apply the knowledge which he has acquired, to the practical purpose for which it was designed. In selecting sentences for this purpose, it will be well to take them from the conversation of the scholar himself, or language in common use, which is ungrammatical, as this will lead him to examine his own language by the rules which he has learned.

It will be expected that you should instruct your scholars in Penmanship. This is a very necessary accomplishment, but it would be better if it could be taught in a school, where it should be the only branch. Yet long custom has placed it among the requisitions of a common school. It is not possible, I think, at present, to obviate this inconvenience, and the only inquiry is, how we may make it the least injurious to other branches of study, and secure the greatest improvement in this.

The result of my own experience has been, that three-quarters of an hour, devoted once a day exclusively to this exercise, is better than a longer period, and is the least likely to interfere with other studies.

1. Prepare all the books for writing at your own room, and furnish the copies which will be necessary for the day. If any books are not ruled for writing, I would

recommend to the instructer to do it himself, when he prepares the copies. This will save much time to the school, and prevent much disturbance from the noise of borrowing rules, or frequent removals to get them, and using them when obtained. The copies ought to be prepared before you come into school, in order to have your whole time there, to devote to other objects.

When the hour appointed for writing arrives, let everything else be dropped by those who are to write, let them take their books and pens, and attend to their writing only.

2. While the scholars are writing, devote your whole attention to them. See that every scholar sits in any easy and proper posture. Attend to the manner in which every pen is held, and be careful that every one writes slowly. The master should go from scholar to scholar, and give directions, as he may find them necessary. If the house is properly constructed, he will be able to go to every scholar in the class once in two or three, or at most, in five minutes. He will be able to direct in regard to the writing of every line — to point out errors and defects to be avoided. The progress of the pupil will depend very much upon the interest he is made to feel in the subject. But without attention, no progress of importance can be made.

3. When the time for writing has expired, let all the pens be cleaned at once, and the books be all returned. If scholars be permitted to continue writing, after the attention of the instructer is turned to other exercises of the school, they will often write carelessly, and make no improvement. When *one* ceases, *all* should cease, and direct their attention to another subject.

By pursuing a course like the above, there will be very little loss of time, and very little danger of the formation of careless habits. But if scholars are permitted to call for copies when they please, and to write as much and as carelessly as they please, they will greatly disturb the course of the school, and probably contract habits which will be broken up with difficulty; they will waste paper and time, and make very little progress either in writing or in their other studies.

4. In preparing copies, it is important to have a system. The easiest parts of letters should be first made, and a regular course of lessons given. Unless some system is adopted, it will be impossible for the teacher to be uniform with himself. He will be liable to neglect some letters, while others are very frequently used in the copies. Every one who pretends to teach without following some system, will teach but imperfectly.

I shall conclude this lecture, with some remarks on teaching History.* This is a study which ought to be pur-

*The following remarks on this point are from the Journal of Education, and better than any that I have seen.

"The teacher's first duty, on this plan, is to make himself familiar with all the details of the history of the city, town, or village in which he teaches, and to take particular notice of every spot or object which is linked with an historical association,—with the occurrence of any remarkable event. The second step in this practical method of teaching, is, to carry the young learners to as many as possible of these places or objects and to fasten on the youthful mind a correct and abiding impression of them, as connected with the even which gives them their celebrity or interest. Here are several great points gained:—the health of the pupils is benefited by the fresh open air, and the invigorating exercise of walking;—the corporeal effort and enjoyment produce an active and excited, and happy state of mind;—every thing wears the aspect of reality, and of nature, and of life,—curiosity is excited to the highest pitch, and receives the amplest gratification;—from the living voice of the teacher, the ear drinks in instruction with delight, in the scene of the strange, romantic, or glorious action which has left its indelible impress on the spot; the teacher too loses the character of the task-master, and becomes the living and venerated oracle of his young circle of listeners,—he becomes one of their sources of pleasure and is loved accordingly. These results are brilliant;—but they are not imaginary: they are those which took place in the early lessons received in childhood by the individual who writes this article, and which he has had the happiness of seeing realized in the young listeners to his own words.

"Here a person who is unacquainted with this mode of instruction may start an objection. But what if there is no high romantic, or kindling interest in the scene where you teach? The simple answer is, it is not necessary that there should be. The interesting details of humble adventure, the narrative of domestic life, the tale of the early settlers,—all of which have a poetic charm for the young,—will suit the same purpose, will enkindle curiosity, secure attention, and convert the study of history, from a task or a book-dream, into a pleasing reality.—Another objection may be that, with young pupils, this method of instruction is necessarily circumscribed;—they cannot walk or travel so far as to embrace a very wide circle of classical or historic ground. Granted: still, every

sued in all your schools, at least so far as relates to the history of our own country. Every teacher should speak of it as a necessary study, and as one which will be very pleasant. Though there is no text-book, which seems to me exactly fitted for common schools, yet there are many that contain valuable information, and by selecting subjects from them of the most interest, and making these plain to the understanding of the scholar, by such illustration as the nature of them will admit, the children will be highly interested.

I would recommend to you to commence with a class, by giving them several lectures on the history of their own state or town, or the places where they are most acquainted. Then lessons from books in regard to particular events, which have taken place. Such should be selected as have been connected in an eminent degree with the welfare of the country. When subjects are given them, instead of requiring them to take all the events in their connection, the class will be more likely to engage with interest, and to retain what they learn.—If these lessons are given, following the order of time in which the incidents occurred, a connected history of the most prominent events will be obtained, and each general subject will remain firmly fixed in the mind.

To illustrate more fully what I mean.—After a few general subjects, such as may regard the history of the town, neighbourhood or state, I would recommend that the lessons be given out in a manner somewhat like the following.—"You may take your histories and learn, so that you can relate to me, the most important particulars relative to the first discovery of the country. I shall ask you

village has the little story of its early settlement, and its spots or objects noted for something which took place in the days gone by; and should there be but one such spot or object, it will serve, to begin with, to give the study of history the aspect of reality. For every event read in a wider circle of historical narrative, will by association be made to bear a resemblance to this. The young pupil will be made to realise that such things were.

"After such a beginning, the teacher transfers as far as he can, the same method to the study of the history of the county or state in which his pupils reside, and afterwards to that of their native country in general."

these questions:—Who discovered America? From what country was he? How many ships had he? What happened on the voyage? After his men had grown disaffected how long did Columbus persuade them to sail? What happened during that time? What did Columbus do when he arrived at the shore? What name did he give to the place? Whom did he find there? What was it that interested very much the attention of his men? What did the natives think of Columbus and his crew? What happened when they were on their homeward passage? How were they received? &c." The next subject may be the first settlement of Jamestown; then, that of New England; the next, the history of the settlement of New York, and of its being taken by the English. "Now," you may say to them, "I wish you to tell me for your next lesson, about the contest between the Colonies and England, and what was the consequence?—Afterwards, the particulars of the battle of Lexington, then, that of Bunker Hill, &c."

By proceeding in this way, and making the pupil fix his mind on but one subject, for each lesson, he will be able to understand his lesson fully, and will read attentively every thing that regards the subject on which he is to be examined. I am confident that two objects will be secured by this mode, which are not gained as well by putting a book into the hands of a scholar and requiring him to learn the whole: viz. He will be better pleased and will gain a more distinct knowledge of the most interesting facts. I would not say positively that the mode I have recommended is the best; but it has succeeded better than any I have known in our schools. If the members of a class have different books, it will not be very material, as each author treats of all the most interesting facts in history.

LECTURE XI.

In the preceding Lectures, I have remarked on the studies usually required in district schools. But I am not satisfied that these should be the only subjects introduced into these important institutions. In this lecture, I shall speak of some other branches which ought to be pursued, and remark on improving all the opportunities which may occasionally be offered of making salutary impressions on the minds of scholars. Among the subjects that should receive attention beside those already mentioned, *Composition* is pre-eminent. "That which gives to any branch of study its greatest value, is its practical utility." If this sentiment be just, Composition should never be neglected. Every one who can write, has occasion to compose letters of business or friendship, and in some way or other, to express his thoughts on paper more or less frequently. To neglect, while acquiring an education for common business, some things which are as important as others which receive *particular* attention is not the dictate of reason. But this consideration is not the only evidence that this subject claims attention.—Arranging our ideas in sentences, and combining those sentences so as to express a continued train of thought, is one of the best means of making the knowledge, which we gain, practical. Perhaps hardly any exercise is a better discipline of the mind than the writing of Composition. It is the application of knowledge to the business of life. Without such application, much that is acquired will soon be lost, and if not lost, of what value can it be to its possessor? Of what use to the farmer were all the theory that might be obtained, if he never applied his knowledge to his business?

When Composition is neglected in district schools, it becomes a very burdensome exercise to such as may afterwards attend a higher school or an academy. Many have I seen weep, because this was then made a requisition for

the first time. "I was never called upon to write before, and now it seems to me that I cannot," has been said to me by many. "I wish I had been required to write when I attended the district school, and now it would not be such a task."

The following directions may be of service to you on this subject.

1. Labour to impress the minds of the school with a sense of its great importance. This may be done by representing the many situations in which they would highly value the art of expressing their thoughts on paper — the interest they will feel in being able to compose a letter to a friend in handsome style — the inconvenience they must often suffer, if they neglect this study until obliged to write and expose their ignorance, or have to make application to others to do that, which they ought to be able to do for themselves. All this may be impressed upon their minds by means of familiar illustrations.

2. It has been found profitable to commence with young scholars, by giving them a number of words, and requiring them to write a sentence, in which one or more should be used. The first words may be nouns, the next adjectives — the next pronouns, &c. Give the child a slip of paper with the directions and words, as for instance, the following — Write sentences, and use one of the following words in each. Man, gold, stars, indemnity, gravitation, lines, eagerness, play, home, garden. Compositions should afterwards embrace a variety of other single words or of words compounded.

The object of this course is to make the task easy — to have the invention of the scholar brought into vigorous exercise—and to have him excited to learn the exact meaning of words. It is conceived that by such a mode all these objects are gained, in a more or less important degree.

3. When the scholars are sufficiently exercised in this kind of composition, it may be useful to read a story to them, and then let them relate as much of it as they can in their own words. This enables them to see the importance of paying close attention to what they hear, and of fixing the most prominent ideas, so as to treasure them up. But as they will not be likely to retain any full sentence,

it leads them to the exercise of arranging ideas in sentences, nearly as much as writing an original composition. They will not suffer from not knowing what to write, and will probably be amused and pleased with the exercise.

4. Subjects may afterwards be given them on which to write. These should be those with which they are familiar, or may become so by reading.

It is always better to *give* subjects than to let the pupil *select* for himself; for he will often choose without judgment, and is frequently unable to decide on any one, till he has become exceedingly confused. He will often select the hardest subjects thinking them the easiest. Of this kind, are such as the following; friendship, love, hope, spring, summer, autumn, winter, youth, &c.

In selecting subjects it is very important they should be such as will benefit the scholars in a moral point of view, or in supplying rules and precepts for the transactions of life. If a young person can be excited to a proper course of reflection on the influence which different habits will have upon his happiness and usefulness, he will be much more likely to form correct ones, than he would without such reflections. It is therefore of very great importance to lead the young to such reflections as shall be of the greatest benefit in the formation of correct habits. Such questions as the following, when given, as subjects of composition, have been found very useful. What four things ought the young to seek first, in order to promote their happiness? What six habits may I form while young, that will secure to me the greatest personal enjoyment, and respectability? By the formation of what five habits can I do the most good to my fellow-creatures? By what five habits can I most injure society? Describe the character of such persons or families as you would wish for your neighbours. Must the drunkard be an unhappy man? If so, why? Do you believe the thief, liar, &c. can be happy? if not, why?

Questions on subjects of this character may be multiplied and varied according to the judgment of the teacher, and may be rendered easier or harder according to the ability of the class. The scholars thus, not only derive

satisfaction from the easy accomplishment of their tasks, but are excited to reflect, and to make up their opinions on subjects very important to them, while forming habits and characters for life.

5. Recommend to your pupils to correspond with each other by letters — to ask each other questions to be answered in writing, and also to write down their own reflections for their own private use.

The effect of this course will unquestionably be salutary. They will not only be excited to a cultivation of the social affections, but will undoubtedly be much advanced in the art of composition. This knowledge, however, will not long be retained without practice. Practice, in the way recommended, will be likely to cause them to examine rules, and to correct as far as they can, their own compositions. Every thing, which has a tendency to call forth their own powers of mind, is important and will be productive of good.

After composition, or in connexion with it, it is highly important that you should lead the scholars to become interested in the subject of moral philosophy. It may not indeed be practicable in some, perhaps a majority of schools, to introduce the regular study of this branch, but you may make your scholars acquainted with some of its important principles. You may teach them to examine the reasons of moral distinctions. You may teach them to examine the character of the things they approve, and of those they disapprove; — why some things please and others displease them. They may be taught that in *all* there is implanted a moral sentiment, and this has a material influence on human happiness. You may inform them what feelings and what actions are virtuous and what are vicious by referring them to the great rule of duty as presented in the law of God.

It is important for every one to have some acquaintance with some of the *first principles* of Natural Philosophy and Chemistry. With the *results* of these principles every one is daily acquainted. But of the principles which produce these results multitudes are totally ignorant.

They are of course unable to apply these principles to the practical purposes of life. The production of some of the most common phenomena is often as mysterious to them, as the most abstruse principles of science. Now it certainly would add to their happiness, and often to their success in life, to have many of these phenomena explained to them. Every child knows that water will rise in a pump, but why or how it gets up is a mystery to him — he knows that wood, when put upon the fire will burn, and that a stone will not, but why one should burn rather than the other he cannot tell.—He knows he can raise a weight by a lever, which, without it, would resist his strength, but why he gains power, he does not know. He sees one piece of land productive and another barren, but what should occasion the difference is beyond his power to tell.

Now, what I wish on your part is, that some of these principles should be familiarly explained, for the purpose of correcting wrong ideas and leading scholars to attend to principles of daily interest and occurrence.

In regard to these and other subjects on which you may have opportunity to remark, let it be your undeviating rule to impart all the knowledge within your power.

I wish to add a direction here, for which I have found no better place in these Lectures; viz. study to seize on and improve favourable moments to impart valuable instruction, or important practical knowledge.

There are some seasons when impressions may be made on the minds of the young, much more favourably than at others. The attention is awake, the mind becomes amused and impressions then made will be more lasting, than when the mind is not excited. Such seasons should be regarded as a seed-time, which if improved by the teacher, may be the means of producing very important fruits.

I shall be best understood, by examples. An eclipse occurred during the hours of the school. The darkness occasioned a suspension of labour for a season. After permitting the scholars to go and look at it, and at the objects around shrouded in gloom, the teacher returned with them to the school-room, and addressed them in the following manner.

"You have seen," said he, "a most interesting sight today, and one which may lead you to some profitable reflections. The moon is a planet very small when compared with the earth, or the sun, and yet by being near us, and coming between us and the sun, has obscured that light which is so cheerful and necessary. I wish to turn your thoughts for a moment to the interesting nature of the study of astronomy, by which, the motions of the heavenly bodies may be perfectly known, and their size and distance determined with certainty. I wish you to know also, the importance of this science to us. If astronomers had not been able to tell us of this eclipse and had not we expected it today, how great must have been our terror! We might have been as much frightened as some of the ancients are said to have been at similar appearances. But now we look upon it with the utmost delight, as a rare exhibition of the effect of planetary motion. Had you seen an astronomer calculating this eclipse five years ago, you might have said he was not surely doing any thing to benefit you; but you now see how much terror and fear he has saved you, by telling you beforehand of the sublime spectacle of today. All the art, which *he* had, is what *you* may easily acquire, by attending to the study of astronomy. Who is there that would not delight in a study so sublime and important? He who first learned that this eclipse would happen today, was once a little child, and knew no more, than the most ignorant of you. You may, like him, become learned and wise. By resolutely and faithfully pursuing your studies, you may be able to understand all that others know of astronomy, or any other of the sciences which man has acquired. But he, among you, who is unwilling to persevere in obtaining knowledge, must continue to be ignorant of that which others know. Now who of you will choose to be ignorant, and who of you will endeavour to be wise? I shall know your individual determinations, by observing who of you are, hereafter, faithful in improving your time, and who among you choose play and ignorance, in preference to usefulness and wisdom."

Take another example. It was one of actual occur-

rence. It was a chilly day of winter, and we were all seated in a comfortable school-room. A man of most wretched appearance was seen passing by, drawing a hand-sled, on which were several bundles of woolen rags, the remnants of garments worn till they could be of no further use. He was clad in those but little better, and was apparently so weak as to be scarcely able to draw his sled.—Some looked out of the window and began to laugh. The instructer saw him, and remarked, the school may rise, and all looked at that wretched man passing by.—All did so, and nearly all were diverted to laughter. After all had seen him, the master told them they might take their seats, and then remarked: "I was willing you should look at that man, but possibly my object was very different from yours, as I see the effect on your feelings was very different from what was produced on mine. That miserable man, you may at once perceive, is crazy. He has bundles of rags on his sled, which, perhaps, he values, but which can be of no service to him. You perceived he looked pale and emaciated; he was so weak as scarcely to be able to draw his load. He is very poorly shielded from the cold of winter, and will very probably perish in the snow.—Now tell me, my scholars, does this man excite your laughter? He was once a school-boy; he was bright and active as any of you; his return from school was welcomed by joyful parents, and his presence gave pleasure to the youthful throng who met each other in a winter evening for merriment and sport. Look at him now, and can you sport with him who has lost his reason, and, in losing that, has lost all? Should I point to one of you, and be able by looking down into future years, to say to the rest, your associate will hereafter be crazy and roam around a wretched maniac, would you not rather weep than laugh? You saw me affected when I began to speak — I will tell you why. — I once had a friend. — He was dear to me as a brother; he was every thing I could wish in a friend. The character of his mind was such, as raised in his friends high expectations. I have indeed, seldom, if ever seen his equal. He could grasp any subject, and what others found difficulty, only served as amusement for him. I have many of his letters which

would not disgrace any well educated man, although written by him, when he was a school-boy. I expected to see him taking a lead in the affairs of men, and that his opinions would be quoted by others. I saw him after an absence of two years — where, do you ask? it was in a cage, and even then he was chained! He was a maniac of the most decided character. The moment he saw me, he seized my hand, and left on it the impression of his own, for it was divested of the skin, by constantly rubbing it in the other. For years, he has wandered about, when it was safe to liberate him. But he is now, and he always will be insane.

"I have known sorrow — have seen friends die that were as near as friends could be; but the hour that I sat by the confined and crazy Bernet, *was an hour of the greatest anguish I ever knew.* Remember, my pupils, from what has passed this hour, to render unfeigned thanks to God for continuing your reason hitherto, and if ever again you are disposed to laugh, when a crazy man passes, remember what *may be* your own condition hereafter."

Many occasions will occur, when you may make salutary and lasting impressions on the minds of those placed under your instruction. Seize these precious occasions, and improve them with a high regard to the best interest of your pupils. I have only to add that in all your intercourse with scholars, it is uncumbent on you, to make use of every means not only to promote their present welfare, but to lay the foundation of such habits of thinking and acting, as shall promote their greatest happiness hereafter. By keeping this constantly in mind, you may be the occasion of lasting benefit to them, and have the satisfaction of reflecting that you have done your duty.

LECTURE XII.

I HAVE hitherto said but little to you upon the proper methods of exciting the attention of scholars to their studies. The subject is too important to be passed without remarks.

In the sentiments which will be advanced, you will probably observe a wide difference from those that may have been exhibited to you, by instructers heretofore. I am persuaded however you will give them an attentive examination, before you judge them unworthy of attention.

What are proper inducements to be made use of, in gaining the attention of scholars, and leading them to make a proper improvement of their opportunities for acquiring knowledge?

In answering this question, it must, I think be conceded, that those inducements should be used, which will lead to the happiest result, and not be attended with particular or general evil: and those methods of excitement are censurable, which are attended with evils greater than the amount of good they are intended to effect. That some of this character are often used, I am convinced by observation. That such are now used is equally certain. The character of the motives in question, will here be presented to your attention.

1. Are emulation and ambition proper to be used for the purpose of excitement? In order to answer this question, we must examine the character and influence of both. "The meaning of emulation," says Parkhurst,* "*is a desire to excel*, for the sake of the gratification of being superior to others." This gratification includes both the pleasure of reflecting on our own superiority, and also that of seeing and thinking that this superiority is known to our companions and the world. The votary of emulation loves to look down upon others; and the greater the number he

*Moral Philosophy, p. 149.

sees below him, of those who were once his equals or superiors, the more exquisite is the gratification he feels. He is willing that others should stand high, if he can stand still higher, but, if he must stand low, he wishes others to stand still lower. This principle of action seems sometimes to become so strong, as to swallow up all others. Of this a striking instance is offered in the language which Milton ascribes to Satan:

"Better to reign in Hell, than serve in Heaven."

"He who is actuated by a principle of emulation chooses to obtain a superiority to others, rather by elevating himself, than by depressing them: First, because he will in this way not only become superior to his competitors, but also to others at a greater distance, and will thus hold a more elevated station in the view of the world; and, secondly, because he will give more applause and admiration, if he raises himself by fair means, than if he retards or sinks others, in order to get above them."

2. "The word *ambition* is frequently synonymous with emulation; but it is also used in a sense in which emulation is not. The latter term is confined chiefly in its application to children and youth, while ambition is used chiefly to denote the operation of the same principles in men, especially those who signalize themselves in a military and political capacity. Emulation has respect chiefly to rivals near at hand; ambition seeks a superiority which has no limits. Emulations seeks to excel in things, chiefly, which are of a personal nature; as in bodily strength and agility, or in mental attainments and powers. Ambition, besides seeking to excel others in the same endowments, exercised on a larger scale, also seeks to exceed them in grandeur, wealth, and fame. The *principle* in all these cases is the same. It is a desire of superiority for the sake of the gratification and personal advantage it affords."

I know that the word emulation is not always used in the sense given to it by the author quoted; but, still I am not able to disprove the general correctness of his definition. We sometimes hear the expressions, "virtuous ambition," "just ambition," "proper ambition," &c. The word

is sometimes used to express an ardent desire after an object, without reference to the means, or to rivalship and competition. "Thus a child who studies alone is said to be ambitious to learn, meaning merely that he is very anxious to learn and to acquire knowledge. Thus a man sometimes says it is his 'highest ambition,' to please another, meaning that he has a *very strong desire* to please another and to gain his approbation. In this case ambition is totally distinct from emulation. I am not certain, however, that this use of the word is found in any good writer."

You will understand me as using the words "emulation and ambition, as denoting the same principle." In order more fully to answer the question, whether it is proper to use emulation in exciting attention to study, it will be necessary to consider with what it is connected; and also, from what it is distinct.

1. It is very evident that it is intimately associated with both pride and vanity. Here the author before quoted, speaks my own sentiments. "Pride is the thinking of ourselves more highly than we ought to think." Emulation, by leading a person to think frequently of his own attainments and excellencies, cherishes pride. Vanity is a desire of admiration, and this is an essential ingredient of emulation. The votary of emulation usually receives his chief pleasure from being admired and commended. Here and there an individual may not be satisfied with a proud consciousness of a superiority; but there are few who would desire any great superiority to others, unless their superiority were known and noticed.

2. "Emulation is intimately connected with hatred and envy." "Plato makes emulation the daughter of envy;" but I would rather say, she is the mother of envy, since it appears to be a desire to possess the superiority and advantages which we see another possess, that leads us to envy him of these advantages. Envy appears not to be a simple principle, but compounded of a desire to deprive some other of a good which he possesses, because we do not possess the same ourselves, and hatred of that other, because he enjoys something which we do not. The connexion between emulation and envy is, therefore, that of

cause and effect. Emulation if unsuccessful always produces envy; and of course hatred, that being an essential ingredient of envy. Sometimes the envy that is produced by unsuccessful competition, is small in degree and transient in duration, being overcome by other principles; and sometimes it rises into anger and revenge, or settles into inveterate hatred and malice. And any one who has made use of emulation in the education of children, must have had opportunity to notice these unhappy effects."

Emulation is entirely distinct from some other principles, which are virtuous, or at least innocent, with which it is sometimes compounded.

1. "It is distinct from a desire to make great attainments in virtue and knowledge. A person may desire knowledge and make great efforts to attain it, because he loves it; because every new idea which the mind acquires is a source of pleasure; and because he derives a satisfaction from the exercise of his mental faculties in acquiring ideas, and in afterwards recollecting and comparing them. Again, he may desire knowledge for the sake of becoming more useful in the world, of promoting the happiness of others in a greater degree. This is a virtuous motive. In the same manner he may desire any virtuous endowment whatever of body or mind, not because it will render him superior to others, but because it is valuable in itself, and may promote his own good or that of the public.

2. "Emulation is also distinct from a comparison of ourselves with others, for the sake of judging more correctly what progress we have made in knowledge and improvement. If emulation exists, a comparison of ourselves with others is sure to fan the flame, and if it does not yet exist, such a comparison is likely to enkindle it. But this comparison is not emulation itself, and may be made without exciting it. Suppose that a youth is pursuing his studies, actuated by a desire to do good. He observes that he makes greater progress than his fellows. This gives him pleasure, not because he excels, but because his prospect of being useful in the world is brightened. If, however, he believes their object the same as his own, and reflects that their inferiority in talents and learning will

render them less useful than they might otherwise be, this reflection will give him more pain than he will derive pleasure, from the prospect of his own superior usefulness. But after all, a frequent comparison of our own talents and attainments with those of others, is a dangerous experiment: and a disposition, frequently to make it, is almost a sure sign of a spirit of emulation.

3. Emulation is distinct from a desire to do much good in the world. Distinguished activity to do good, let it proceed from one in a station ever so high, may spring from the purest benevolence, and is therefore no evidence of a spirit of emulation, or an ambitious principle. A man who thus distinguishes himself is not to be called ambitious, unless he appears fond of being known to be eminently useful, and gives evidence of love of fame and applause.

4. Emulation is distinct from a desire to imitate the virtuous deeds of another, or *resemble* him in virtuous character. Virtue appears more amiable, when it is exhibited in a living character, and when its happyfruits are actually seen, than it can appear, when viewed in the abstract. Whoever loves virtue, therefore, will feel a stronger desire to possess and practice it, in proportion as his perceptions of its excellence are more distinct and lively.* A desire to imitate the wise and good is easily distinguished from emulation, because it involves no desire of superiority. There is an instance in scripture where this desire to imitate the virtues of another, is spoken of under the name of emulation. But in this place, Rom, xi. 14. the term is evidently used in a good sense, for it was Paul's object to persuade the Jews to imitate the Gentiles by believing in Christ. The appropriate use of the word may be seen in Gal. v. 20. where it is classed with "hatred, variance, wrath, strife, envyings, murders," &c.

5. "Emulation is distinct from the desire of having a good name and enjoying the approbation of the wise and good. A good name is to be desired for the sake of increasing our influence and usefulness in the world. The

*See Kame's Elements of Criticism, vol. i. p. 55.

approbation of the wise and virtuous is to be desired for the same reason, and also because it assures us of the friendly regard of those whose approbation we enjoy. There is an innocent and lively pleasure in being beloved by those we love; and some degree of this pleasure is felt, when we learn that we have gained the approbation of good men, even though we have no personal acquaintance with them. This is totally distinct from the love of praise and the desire of admiration and applause."

Such being the character of emulation, the conclusion must be obvious that its tendency is injurious. "The encouragement of emulation, cannot fail to strengthen the selfish principles of our nature. That all selfish and malevolent principles have a hurtful tendency is evident.

"Instead of having a good effect, emulation has an injurious one, on the acquisition of knowledge, and the improvement of the mind. In order to have a scholar understand and remember what he learns, it is necessary for him to love learning for its own sake. And he who studies diligently, because he derives pleasure from it, will not while studying think of any other motive. The constant pleasure he derives from the exercise of his mental faculties and the acquisition of new ideas, is a stimulus that makes him diligent and persevering, and impresses on his memory, that which he learns. But emulation affords a motive entirely different from this. This pleasure is the *reward* to which he looks forward as the fruit of his application. Just so far then as the mind dwells on this subject, it is withdrawn from its present employment — And just so far as the desire of excelling others has a place in the breast, it excludes the love of study for its own sake. If the scholar, while studying is constantly calculating how far he has got, and how far he can get, and anticipating a triumph over his rivals, or fearing that they will triumph over him, it is next to impossible that he should get his lesson *well*, or remember it *long*. He exercises his memory while studying, in order to recite as much as possible, but does not bring his judgment or discrimination into exercise. When his lesson is recited, he thinks of it but little, and applies himself as before." This is an evil much worse in common

schools, than in seminaries where there are various examinations afterwards, for which the scholar is required to be prepared. But it is undoubtedly, on the whole, an evil wherever it is made the exciting principle in schools of any description. "This will be very apparent when we bear in mind that the successful votaries of emulation must be few." There is but one head to a class, and after trials, all but one or two will be liable to feel a discouragement, which will dampen the ardour of study, and diminish the amount of knowledge gained.

Again, the use of emulation as a stimulus in schools lays the foundations for ambition in the pursuits of life. "I wish to beat"—"I'll try to beat"—"I can beat," is language you will hear from children and youth as common as any language, where emulation is the instrument of excitement in any institution of learning. It is introduced into amusements, and leads to all those games where the trial of agility or strength is, to see, who will *beat*. A foundation is thus laid for what we so often see in after life, of the race of popularity, office-seeking management and manoeuvres, and efforts to elevate one's self by the downfall of others. And "let it be remembered that the ambition which has so often trampled on the rights of mankind, which has reduced millions of free men to the condition of slaves, which has shed so much blood, and sacrificed so many lives is only the principle of emulation, acting on a larger scale." The child in whose breast this principle is cherished, is prepared, if circumstances are favourable, to be numbered among "those who have been scourges of mankind. Happily, few have the opportunity of seeking an immortality of fame in this way. The principles of government and liberty are so well understood, and civil institutions are so firmly established," in the present age of the world, that ambition finds itself restrained in a great measure; but this does not change its character, or prevent minor efforts unfriendly to the welfare and happiness of the community. It cannot, therefore, with me, be any longer a question whether the instructer ought to make use of this principle to excite his scholars to application and study. It is often injurious to those who

are successful, and has a bad effect on the unsuccessful. It is connected with pride, vanity, envy, hatred and slander, and is in opposition to real nobleness of character.

I am now prepared to point out to you some of those means, which may be employed to stimulate the student to make vigorous application to his studies.

1. Present the "importance of knowledge and mental improvement as qualifications for respectability, usefulness and happiness in future life," to your scholars as an inducement to proper application. This direction regards rather a preparation of the mind for study, than an inducement while the scholar is actually engaged in studying. It would then, like the motives of emulation serve only to divert the mind. But it may be highly useful to excite perseverance in acquiring knowledge."

2. "A desire to gain the approbation of friends and instructers is a motive of the same kind. It ought not to be thought of while the scholar is studying; but it may incline him to be more economical of his time, may associate some pleasing ideas with the thought of taking up his book and obtaining a lesson, and in the intervals of study, may produce an excitement which will prepare the mind for renewed application. He is not to be told he has done better than others, this would be making use of emulation, but he may be told he has done *well* — has done better than *usual*, or that he has not done as well as he ought, when he has been negligent. For the most part, however, the countenance of the instructer will express sufficient approbation or censure, without the aid of words. If he loves to teach, and to see the improvement of his scholars, they will readily perceive his feelings, and the liveliest emotions will be excited in their breasts. The pleasure which the good scholar feels, when he sees the smile of approbation, is innocent, so long as the principle of emulation is excluded.

3. A love of learning for its own sake is a very powerful stimulus. This is a motive which will not only draw the pupil from amusements or other employments to his studies, but will operate powerfully while he is studying to produce intense application and perseverance. The

scholar who derives a pleasure from the acquisition of new ideas, and the exercise of his mental powers, will be far more likely to understand thoroughly what he learns; will find the new ideas he has gained frequently revolving in his mind afterwards from day to day, and will retain them in his memory, ready for use, whenever occasion may require.

4. Present to your scholars their obligations to study as a duty, which if properly regarded will add to their happiness, but if disregarded will subject them to the reprehension of their own consciences.

It is a duty which they owe to themselves. They are under obligation to regard their own happiness, and to make all reasonable preparation for it. They have an opportunity to add to their enjoyment by increasing their knowledge. To disregard it and to misimprove the opportunity afforded them, will be to lay the foundation for subsequent sorrow and regret.

It is a duty, they owe to their teacher, to make the best use of his instructions. His time is devoted to them. He is anxious to help them, and affords every reasonable assistance in the acquisition of knowledge.

It is a duty they owe their parents, to make the best improvement of the facilities furnished them for gaining knowledge. They have furnished the means for making improvement in that which will be useful to them in after life, and it is an abuse of paternal solicitude and anxiety, not to make all the advances in knowledge of which they are capable.

It is a duty they owe to their country, to qualify themselves to be useful citizens; and this cannot be done. if they remain ignorant and uncultivated. The country has a claim on all to be as useful as they have the means to be; this claim reaches children, as well as those of maturer years.

Lastly, it is a duty they owe Him who made them. He requires them to make a due improvement of their time, and promises his favour to those who obey, and threatens his displeasure against those who disregard his command.

"Take fast hold of instruction, let her not go; keep her for she is thy life. Get wisdom, get understanding and forget it not. Wisdom is better than riches, and all the things that may be desired are not to be compared to it." Such are the declarations of the book of God, and they require serious attention from the youthful scholar.

To conclude: Make use of every proper motive to lead the scholar to just views of the value of knowledge, the best means of gaining it, and the proper use to be made of it when acquired. Point out plainly the consequences which must result to himself and others, from indifference and inattention to the opportunity he has of gaining knowledge.

It is believed that such inducements as have been mentioned, will be found abundantly sufficient to excite all the attention and application necessary to insure success in acquiring knowledge, except in such instances, as those where there is an entire want or perversion of every common principle. There may be instances where every thing will fail, but extreme severity. But such are very uncommon and owe their existence to the neglect or imprudence of parents or teachers. In such instances when they occur, it may be necessary to resort to unusual means, and these must be left to the judgment of the instructer to apply as the exigencies of the case may require.

I wish here to add one remark, not perhaps belonging to the previous subjects, but still important. It will be of very great benefit to the schools in a place, if the instructers and others would unite and form a Lyceum, and permit the most forward scholars to become united with it? If the apparatus for illustrating science, designed for the use of Lyceums, could be obtained, it would unquestionably be a very powerful inducement to scholars to make a vigorous effort to acquire knowledge? It is recommended to teachers to use proper exertions to form Lyceums, in every place where they may be employed in teaching.

LECTURE XIII.

To Female Instructers.

YOUNG LADIES,

IN the preceding lectures addressed to young men, many of the directions are equally applicable to yourselves. The qualifications natural and acquired, which it is important for *them* to possess, are not stated higher than those to be expected from *you*. The mode of governing and teaching recommended to gentlemen, should be nearly the same with a teacher of either sex. The subject of gaining the confidence of a school, so as to be able to exert the influence necessary to the benefit of the scholars, and the importance of adopting such a course in the general management of a school, as shall promote the convenience of the teacher and success of the pupils, should claim much of your attention. But still there are some points, in the proper management of the schools which you will instruct, that require variation of manner, and some directions may be given to you, which could not be given properly in the lectures you have already heard. I shall, therefore, address you separately in a concluding lecture.

It will devolve on you to lay the foundation, on which all that succeed you are to build. You are to give direction to the pliant twig, the first bias to the infant intellect. Your station is one of great responsibility. You have it in your power either to promote the welfare of the little group around you, or to do them the greatest injury. Next to mothers, the character of children will depend on you. If you are judicious and faithful, you may be benefactors to the community,—if you are negligent of duty, or misjudge on important points, the best of parents, and the best of teachers can never repair the mischief, you may do to the infant charge committed to your trust.

You have it in your power to create in the minds of

the children a taste for the school—for its exercises and amusements; and from you they may derive such an aversion to these pursuits as will not be overcome by the labours of your successors in many years. But these subjects will claim attention in their order, and I need only advert to them here.

The first remarks I shall make, will regard the youngest children, placed under your care. These are usually from three to seven years old, though sometimes younger. The first object at which you should aim, is *to please them* —to make the school as pleasant to them as possible. In order to do this, you must consider what they are, and how their attention can be excited; how they are pleased, and in what manner they may, most easily be governed. But before the remarks I shall have occasion to make on these points, I wish to bear a decided testimony against the common course pursued by most female teachers in the country. The children, of the age I have mentioned, are sent to school in the morning, and after they arrive at the school-room, are required to take their seats, and there sit till noon, with the exception of being called up to read once or twice, and perhaps, of being permitted to go out once. They have an hour at noon for play, and then are confined again till the close of the school. They become restless, tired and cross; and no wonder that they should. To confine a volatile child for six hours in a day to one place, without employment and with no change of scenery —with nothing but a dull round of exercises in which it takes little or no delight, is not only unreasonable and cruel, but is a sure way to make the school an unpleasant place, and to make dolts of the scholars themselves. I have long ago ceased wondering at the lines of the poet, describing the infant school-boy

> "With his satchel and his shining morning face,
> Creeping like snail unwillingly to school."

It is indeed, rather a matter of wonder that more children do not form an aversion to school, so great, that it is never overcome in subsequent years. They will often, indeed, attend school with pleasure, from no other motive

than the opportunity it affords them to play with their little associates while going and returning, and during the intermission. Aside from the facilities for play, the school would be an object of aversion. By so much confinement, they suffer in their healths, and more in their spirits.

Where there is nothing of more interest before the child, while in the school-room, than simply his letters in a spelling book, it is no wonder that it should take him a great while to learn them, for curiosity is not awakened, and he sees nothing to attract attention.

In studying to please children, it is important to unite amusement with instruction. This is the object sought in the management of infant schools. Mr. Wilderspin tells us that a whole day sometimes elapses in his school, of three hundred children, from eighteen months to six years old, without a single tear or serious complaint. They are treated as children, but still as if old enough to be moral and intelligent. They have an almost continual change of exercises, but every exercise is designed for their improvement.

It may be proper to pursue a course like the following, with such as are not enough advanced to study lessons. They should be formed into a class, and taught to count. The children should all speak together, distinctly, and very slowly. The teacher or a monitor should count with them; thus, one; two; three; four; five; six, &c. to a hundred. Such as are already able to count, will serve as guides to the rest. When they have counted fifty or one hundred, the exercise should be changed. The class may be shown a picture of some animal, as of a horse, and the following course pursued.

Teacher. Children, I have a picture here, do you wish to see it?

Children. Yes, yes, we do.

T. Can any of you tell me what it is?

C. Yes, a horse, a horse. (The whole should speak together.)

T. What is a horse good for? is he of any use? can you tell me, little children?

C. Yes, a horse is useful to carry people on his back.

T. Can you think of any thing else he is useful for?
C. Yes, to draw wagons, carriages and sleighs.
T. Any thing else?
C. Yes, people use horses to plow and harrow.
T. Can you think of any thing else?
C. No, ma'am.
T. Is the flesh of a horse good to eat?
C. No, people don't eat it.
T. Is the skin good for anything?
C. Yes, ma'am, to make leather.
T. Can you think of any thing else?
C. No, we can't.
T. Then I will tell you. The hair is sometimes used to put into mortar. The hair of the mane and tail is used to make sieves and sometimes brushes. Are the bones of any use?
C. We don't know.
T. They are used sometimes for handles to knives, but not so often as the bones of some other animals.

The teacher may next hold up a Bible and ask, What book is this?

C. A Bible.
T. Who is the Author of the Bible, or who gave us this precious book?
C. God gave it to us.
T. Ought we all to know what it contains?
C. Yes.
T. Can you read it?
C. No, we cannot.
T. Do you wish you could?
C. Yes, we do.
T. Well, if you will try to learn, I will teach you to read.

The teacher may then proceed with the lesson, and extend it as far as she may judge proper. If the class read in the alphabet, it is important to have large letters, such as those on the infant school cards, or, if these cannot be obtained, you may cut them out of an old newspaper. Hold up the letter, so that all may see it distinctly, and then ask, What letter is this, little children? Let them all

answer together, and if but a part speak, it is better to ask a second or third time.

An exercise to succeed that of reading, may be the making of letters on a slate. Every child should be furnished with a slate, black board, or black paper, which may be used for this purpose. Let a monitor hold up a letter, so that all can see it, and then let the class try to imitate it. Then another, and another, till the children have made half or the whole alphabet. While this exercise is going on, you may be engaged in hearing lessons, or in other departments of the school.

The children should not be too long confined, but should be permitted to go out and march, or play under the care of the monitor whom you may place over them. While they are out of the school-room, they may be taught to count, add, subtract, multiply or divide, and this will not tire, when they are at the same time engaged in play.

When you have time to attend to the smallest children again, let them count by two, or by five, as two and two are four, four and two are six, six and two are eight, &c. After this exercise, you may again question the children on a picture of a cow, sheep, or some other animal, or a picture of some object as of a house, boat, tree, carriage or tool, and ask such questions as will lead them to an acquaintance with the nature and uses of the animal or object. The teacher may then tell them some short story from the bible, or some other book, and question them again, about learning to read, preparatory to reading. As you have opportunity, you may always please and greatly benefit the children by conversing with them on such subjects as they can comprehend, and can answer questions about, without much assistance. Arithmetic should unquestionably be the leading subject, because this can be more readily comprehended, than almost any thing else. In repeating numbers to young children, I think it important usually to call the name of some sensible object.— If you wish to teach them to add, it is useful to hold balls or something which the children can see, as two apples and three apples, are how many apples? Four cents and three cents, are how many cents. Five pins and three

pins, are how many pins? Six sticks and four sticks, are how many sticks?

In subtraction, multiplication and division, the same course may be pursued. When the objects are seen before them, they can comprehend the operation, even if very young.

It will be attended with much benefit to children to converse much with them about the nature of things, and call forth their own thoughts as much as possible. What I mean may be illustrated by an example. The teacher held up a nail and asked, What is this, little children?

Children. A nail.

Teacher. What is it made of?

C. Iron.

T. Can you tell me where iron comes from, does it grow as trees do?

C. No, it is obtained from the ground.

T. Can you think of any thing else that is made out of iron?

C. Yes, a knife, a chain, an axe, a crane, a hoe, a part of ploughs and harrows.

T. Can you think of any thing else?

C. Yes, the stove is made of iron.

T. Can any of you think of any thing else?

C. Yes, a horse shoe.

T. Any thing else? This question may be repeated ten or twenty times, or as long as the children can recollect any thing to mention. When the teacher has elicited every answer that can be given by the children, she may vary her questions, and inquire whether it is very useful—whether people could live in civilized society without it—or whether iron or copper is more useful? This may be done by comparing the uses, to which each is appropriated. The conclusions they will be able to form will be very generally found correct. The chief benefit of this course, is the exercise of mind it gives to the children. They are led to think—to examine and to inquire, and will thus be led to form habits of reflection.

It is to be hoped that every district in our country, will soon be disposed to furnish some parts of the infant school

apparatus. This is desirable, if *economy* is consulted, as well as when the benefit of the children is regarded. The cards, containing reading and spelling lessons, and pictures, are durable, and as a whole class read from the same card, which they are never allowed to handle, it is much cheaper to furnish them, than to furnish books. Every female teacher ought to have the little work, entitled, "Hints to Mothers and Infant School Teachers", also "An Essay on Infant Cultivation"; and a work entitled "Infant Education". From either of these books, some very important suggestions may be received, and important instructions obtained in regard to the best mode of teaching the youngest children of the school.

2. I would recommend *to spend a part of each day in questioning the children on the meaning of words.* This may be done by giving a word and requiring them to tell its opposite. The teacher may ask, What is the opposite to cold? The children will at once say, heat. What is the opposite of great, good, pretty, virtue, knowledge, &c.? I think this is one of the best means of leading children to distinct ideas of the knowledge of words, and it is always pleasing to them. Many other means may be employed, for making them acquainted with words. One that is well calculated to interest the attention, is that of giving them a word to explain, and then reading a little story, which will explain it. Let the word cruelty be given; then to explain it, read the account of the treatment of Joseph by his brethren, and tell them that their conduct was cruel. The story of Absalom's usurping the throne of his father, and going to war with him, after his father had treated him with great kindness, will be a proper illustration. The story of the trial and scourging of the Saviour, by the wicked Jews, will be a better illustration than either.

3. The next direction I wish to give you is, *Keep the children fully occupied.* This is important for children of every age. In order to attain this object with the youngest, you will be obliged to employ the assistance of some of the older pupils, while you are attending to the other exercises of the school. Such as may be employed as

monitors, will be benefited by it, as much as by giving the whole of their time to their books; for while they are teaching others they are learning more thoroughly themselves. In no way, perhaps, will they be more benefited than by being thus employed a portion of time each week; for they are not only fixing the knowledge they have acquired in their own mind, but are learning how to teach.

When the school is properly arranged, and every scholar has constant employment, there is no time left for mischief, or for that "busy idleness", which is so often observable in our schools. System and order are every thing in school, and these cannot be gained, where the scholars have not constant employment.

In many districts it may be expected that you will instruct the female part of your school in "needle-work". All I have to say on this subject is, that the practice of sending children to school, to learn to work, is not consistent with the best interest of the school. If this must be attended to, it will be better to assign some portion of time each day to it, and while instructing in that, let it be the only thing at the time, to receive attention. It would, unquestionably be better, both for the scholars and parents, to have a school for work only, where children cannot conveniently be taught at home. It would also make the labours of the teacher much more pleasant.

4. I should be glad to avoid the following remarks, on the subject of *neatness*, did I not believe they are *sometimes* needed. I have not always observed that attention to it, which is important. Children should always be led to associate order, comfort, neatness and regularity, with the school which they attended. This cannot be, where the floor is left covered with leaves and litter, from week to week; and where there is no effort to make use of the means at hand for ornamenting the room with evergreens, &c. Every school-room should have as many attractions for the young as possible. Every degree of negligence on the subject of neatness, must have a bad effect on the school, and should be carefully avoided.

5. Another part of your duty will be to teach the children propriety of conduct. The remark is often made

to an unmannerly child, "You must go to school to learn manners." But with what propriety is it made, when so little attention is generally given to the subject in schools? Still it is important, and should receive attention. Children should be instructed how to go into a room, and how to speak, when they have entered. They should be told what is proper when leaving the house of a neighbour, or when spoken to by persons in the street, or addressed by a visitant at home. Propriety of address and manners should be inculcated, in regard to every situation in which they may be placed. Every species of rudeness and clownishness should be carefully corrected, lest it grow to a habit when they become older. If children are early taught to treat each other with politeness, the habit will be likely to show itself in their treatment of every body else. The truly polite person will never say or do that unnecessarily, which will make any one around him unhappy. Every mode of speaking or allusion to things which will injure the feelings of others is therefore to be discountenanced and reproved. All vulgar joking, blackguarding, or desire to accuse others of things of which they are not guilty, must be considered as the opposite of politeness and good manners. It is the duty of the teacher to keep a watchful eye on every thing connected with this subject.

To conclude: Let it be your endeavour, and spare no pains, to make the children fond of their studies, and desirous of doing right. Strive to have them early accustomed to vigorous mental exertion, and to do right, whether at home or abroad, at school, or at play. Go daily to Him, for guidance and direction, at whose tribunal you must account for the manner you teach the youthful charge entrusted to your care. His assistance alone will enable you to succeed in your efforts to do them good. His approbation and that of your own conscience, will be an abundant reward for every exertion you can make, to promote the best interest of those who look to you for guidance and instruction.

QUESTIONS ON LECTURE I.

1. Is a person properly qualified to become a teacher by the acquisition of science?

2. What else ought he to study?

3. What has been the practice of many who have tried to teach?

4. What ought every one to obtain, who means to teach school? *Why?*

5. Of what is there a general conviction?

6. Is the value of common schools sufficiently realized?

7. What shows the importance of district schools?

8. Who exhibit a high degree of interest in the character and usefulness of schools?

9. What is one way in which *indifference* is exhibited?

10. *Do you think that every parent ought to attend the district school-meeting* in his neighbourhood?

11. What vote is sometimes passed by a district?

12. How is indifference shown by parents, after a school has commenced?

13. Is the indifference universal, of which the author speaks?

14. From what may indifference to the character, and usefulness of schools originate?

15. Is that person a real friend to his country, who has but little regard to the character of the schools, which his children attend?

16. What would be the effect of ignorance on the welfare of our country?

17. How do parents endanger their own happiness?

18. What is the duty of every parent?

19. How is it sometimes shown that parents do not have a proper affection for their children?

20. What do such seem to think most important?

21. Are there exceptions to what is said?

22. Is any part of the indifference to common schools, the result of not realizing moral obligations?

23. Is it to be considered strange, that schools are not more useful, when so many things exist that are injurious to them?

QUESTIONS ON LECTURE II.

1. What are many parents backward to furnish?
2. Would some cheap apparatus be highly useful in every school?
3. Why are some parents unwilling to furnish new books for their children?
4. How do both parents and children suffer loss?
5. From what two things, does the unwillingness of parents to furnish proper means to their children, for making progress in acquiring knowledge arise?
6. Are parents sometimes more willing to spend money for things useless or even hurtful, than for furnishing their children with the means of making their studies pleasant and profitable?
7. What stories are told to illustrate this? 1st.? 2nd.?
8. What is the next thing mentioned, that has operated extensively to prevent the usefulness of schools?
9. How do "district parties" sometimes originate?
10. *Have you ever known any such, which have been unfavourable to the schools in your neighbourhood?*
11. *If you find parties in the districts where you may be employed, what will be their effect on the usefulness of your labours?*
12. *Will it be your duty to strive to unite such parties, in efforts to benefit the schools?*
13. By what means do parents sometimes injure the usefulness of common schools?
14. Are academies ever injurious to common schools?
15. What observations are made in the note on the subject?
16. Would united Christian effort be productive of good, and is it just to attribute a part of the failure in the usefulness of schools to a want of it?
17. What is the fifth reason mentioned why schools are not more useful?

18. What is said of the qualifications of the first class of teachers?

19. What is said of the next class?

20. What is said of the third class of those who engage instructing?

21. Why are many of this class deficient in qualifications?

22. What is the sixth obstacle to the usefulness of schools?

23. What is the seventh thing mentioned?

24. Are school-houses badly constructed, and frequently badly located?

QUESTIONS ON LECTURE III.

1. What is the first requisite in the qualifications of a good schoolmaster?

2. What does the author mean by common sense?

3. What is the second requisite?

4. Why is this important?

5. What is the third qualification?

6. Why is this necessary?

7. What is the next requisite trait in a teacher?

8. Is decision of character important to persons in every situation in life?

9. Why ought a schoolmaster to be affectionate?

10. Is it important that teachers should have a just moral discernment?

11. What is of even more importance to children than intellectual culture?

12. What studies does the law require to be taught in common schools?

13. What is said of the first four?—of the fifth?—of the two last?

14. In a proper knowledge of what are most teachers deficient?

15. What remarks are made on the subject of reading?—of arithmetic?—of geography?—of English grammar?—of the history of the United States?

16. With what other studies ought the instructer to be familiar? What is said of each?

17. *Do you believe that all these studies are requisite, to qualify you to teach with success?*

18. *Have you evidence of possessing the necessary qualifications?*

QUESTIONS ON LECTURE IV.

1. What is the first practical direction to teachers?

2. Is this important to the personal enjoyment of the master?

3. Can the nature of your employment be fully learned without experience?

4. From what publications may something of the nature of teaching be learned?

5. Will you learn something of the nature of your business, by reflecting on the common nature of children?

6. What varieties may you expect to find among them?

7. What is said of parents?

8. Will it be a benefit to converse with experienced teachers?

9. Should you be discouraged by what they may tell you?

10. What have some considered the business of teaching?

11. What remarks are made in the note, on this subject?

12. What is teaching?

13. What language should the teacher use?

14. For the purpose of knowing how to teach, what should you recollect?

15. What is the second general direction?

16. How may you learn your responsibilty as a teacher?

17. What is said of the influence a teacher may exert?

18. What consideration shows the importance of this influence?

19. What has God enjoined upon the young?

20. What is the last suggestion to show the responsibility of the instructer?

QUESTIONS ON LECTURE V.

1. What is the next general direction?
2. Is there a wide difference in the amount of influence exerted by individuals sustaining the same office?
3. With what particular trait of character, in a teacher, is it natural to suppose the scholars will be pleased?
4. What is the first requisite for gaining the confidence of a school?
5. What should you remember?
6. What is the second direction for gaining the confidence of scholars?
7. What is the third direction on this subject?
8. *Will you endeavour to remember this?*
9. What, fourthly, is necessary?
10. What is the fourth general direction?
11. Why should you be willing to devote your whole time to your school?
12. What account is given of the course pursued by Benevolus?
13. What seemed to him highly ridiculous?
14. How is the importance of this direction further illustrated?
15. What request is made of such as are unwilling to devote their whole time?
16. What is said of the compensation allowed to teachers?

QUESTIONS ON LECTURE VI.

1. What is the next general direction?
2. In order to be able to govern others, what is first necessary?
3. Against what must the teacher be well guarded?
4. Is it injurious to make contemptuous speeches about scholars?—about parents?

5. After being able to govern himself, what is of great importance to the teacher, as a first step towards governing the school?

6. What will be the effect on the school, if the master believes he cannot govern the scholars?

7. How ought the teacher to consider and treat his scholars?

8. How is the mode recommended illustrated?

9. What is said of being uniform in the government of a school?

10. What is the first species of irregularity, to which this direction has reference?—the second?

11. Ought the large and small scholars to be required to obey the same laws in school?

12. What is the next direction on school government?

13. What is said of the practice of some teachers?

14. What must this course lead the scholar to suppose?

15. Of what is the master in great danger?

16. Is it proper to excuse the scholar from doing what the teacher directs, because he says he don't know how?

QUESTIONS ON LECTURE VII.

1. What is the next direction on government?

2. Can a master have the same feelings towards a good and a bad scholar?

3. Ought this to effect his government?

4. Is a complaint of partiality in school very common?

5. Is it often too well founded?

6. What will be the effect of partiality if it exists?

7. What is the last direction on governing a school?

8. Ought the teacher to direct the amusements and play of a school?

9. What amusements ought to be prohibited?

10. What other subject is mentioned?

11. Is it commendable for the teacher to assume a lordly or commanding mode in addressing his scholars?

12. What effect does this mode of speaking to scholars have upon them in their intercourse with each other?

13. What general rule, for speaking to a scholar, is given?

14. How may scholars most easily be led to speak kindly to each other?

15. Is the dignity of a person lessened by adopting a kind and affectionate mode of speaking to inferiors?

16. Is the same mode recommended, even when a scholar is to be called to an account for improper conduct?

17. Is it wrong to be hasty in believing a scholar has done wrong, or in accusing him?

18. What is a principle of law?

19. Is it a proper mode to make inquiry for evidence to prove the scholar innocent, when a complaint is brought against him?

20. What is the second direction?

21. What ought to be the first object with the master, when the scholar has done wrong?

22. Why is it considered better to defer punishing a fault for a season?

23. What is the third direction on the subject of punishment?

24. *Do you think this is a reasonable direction?*

25. What modes of punishment are recommended?

26. What should be the last resort in choosing a mode of punishing?

27. What is the fourth direction in regard to punishment?

28. May rewards ever be serviceable?

29. Should they be promised?

30. For what ought they to be given, if ever given?

QUESTIONS ON LECTURE VIII.

1. Is the general management of schools highly important?

2. What is the first direction on the subject?

3. What is the second?

4. Can much be accomplished without system?

5. What must be observed in order to have system?

6. What story is told to illustrate the importance of attempting to do but one thing at a time?

7. What is the third direction?

8. What is the fourth direction?

9. What has been the practice of some instructers?

10. Can a teacher be justified in pursuing this course?

11. What subject ought to receive the greatest share of attention?

12. What does the author consider to be the best rule in directing the studies of scholars?

13. What is recommended as soon as a child can read?

14. How should a child be taught the meaning of words?

15. To what should great attention be paid?

16. Can children very early understand the first principles of arithmetic?

17. What is said of geography?

18. What study may next claim attention?

19. What remarks are made on the study of grammar?

QUESTIONS ON LECTURE IX.

1. Is the manner of teaching of very great importance?

2. Against what should the teacher guard?

3. What should be the first object in teaching?

4. Why is this necessary?

5. What is a common fault with teachers?

6. What is the second direction in regard to teaching?

7. What story is told to illustrate the importance of this direction?

8. Against what should the instructer guard?

9. What objects should be used for the purposes of illustration?

10. *Was the teacher judicious in the mode taken to assist James to understand his map?*

11. What is the third direction given?

12. If the scholars are not pleased with their studies, what is the reason?

13. How should teachers and parents speak of study before children?

14. What is said of the school of Pestalozzi?

15. How can studies be rendered interesting and pleasant?

16. What remarks are made on teaching how to spell?

17. What error is mentioned on the part of the instructer?

18. How do many teachers pronounce words to a class?

19. What rule is given for pronouncing words to be spelled by a class?

20. What is the first direction on teaching scholars to read?

21. What is the second?

22. Do you consider this important?

23. What mode is recommended to insure distinctness in reading?

24. What is the third direction?

25. To what should particular attention be paid?

26. What is the fourth direction?

27. What is the fifth?

28. *Are these important?*

QUESTIONS ON LECTURE X.

1. When may the child begin to learn arithmetic?

2. In teaching written arithmetic, what should be the first object?

3. May a scholar perform all the given operations in arithmetic, and yet not understand it?

4. How is best to commence with scholars whether they are beginners or not?

5. What mode should be adopted in assisting a scholar?

6. By what example is this illustrated?

7. Is it important to go over every rule, as in the instance given?

8. What course should the teacher adopt with a class before calling on them to recite a rule?

9. What benefit will result from it to the scholar?

10. What is the common mode of teaching geography?

11. Is this a natural mode?

12. What is the first direction for teaching geography?

13. What is the first direction, where such a mode is not practicable?

14. What is the second?

15. What is the third?

16. Will scholars be interested in this mode?

17. What exercise is recommended in the fourth place?

18. What proves that the common mode of teaching grammar is not a good one?

19. What is that mode?

20. To what parts of grammar is the chief attention usually paid?

21. What is the first direction given?

22. What is the second?

23. What is the third?

24. What exercise should be continued?

25. What is recommended?

26. Does the author consider writing as properly belonging to the subjects of attention at a district school?

27. What is the first direction?

28. What is the second?

29. What is the third?

30. What will be prevented by pursuing this mode?

31. What is the fourth direction?

32. How is it recommended to begin with a class in teaching history?

33. After these lessons, how is it proposed to proceed?

34. How may a connected historical view be obtained in this way?

35. What may be a first lesson?

36. What questions may be asked upon it?

37. What other lessons in their course are mentioned?

38. What will be the result of pursuing such a course in teaching history?

QUESTIONS ON LECTURE XI.

1. What is a subject of great importance, to be introduced into district schools?

2. Why is composition necessary?

3. Does writing composition, have a good effect in disciplining the mind?

4. What is sometimes the effect of neglecting it in common schools?

5. What is the first direction on teaching composition?

6. What has been found a useful mode of commencing with a class?

7. What is next recommended?

8. What will be one benefit of this mode?

9. Is it better to give subjects than to let scholars select for themselves?

10. What subjects are commonly selected by scholars?

11. Are these easy to write upon?

12. What should be kept in view in selecting subjects for composition?

13. What should the teacher recommend to scholars?

14. What benefit will result from this?

15. Besides composition, what is important?

16. Why ought they to be taught something of moral philosophy?

17. Ought every one to have some acquaintance with natural philosophy and chemistry?

18. What is the next direction given?

19. Why should opportunities, which occur, that produce considerable excitement of mind, be improved for making lasting impressions on the minds of scholars?

20. What is the first illustration?

21. What is the second story designed to illustrate what the author means?

QUESTIONS ON LECTURE XII.

1. What inducements should be made use of, to excite the attention and promote application to study?
2. What does emulation mean?
3. What does ambition mean?
4. Is ambition ever used in a different sense?
5. How will the author use the terms?
6. With what is emulation connected?
7. With what secondly connected?
8. What does Plato call emulation?
9. What is better to call it?
10. From what, first, is emulation distinct? second? third?
11. What is the conclusion on emulation as an inducement to study? For what does it lay the foundation?
12. What is a proper subject to be made use of as an inducement to study? second? third? fourth?
13. Are scholars under obligation to themselves to make a proper improvement of their time? to their teachers? to their parents? to their country? to their Maker?
14. What is recommended to teachers?

QUESTIONS ON LECTURE XIII.

1. Will the Lectures to schoolmasters furnish important instruction to female teachers?
2. Mention the particulars, in which directions should be the same to both classes of teachers?
3. What will devolve on instructresses?
4. What have they power to do?
5. What may they become?
6. What will be the consequence of pursuing a wrong course with young children?
7. What should be the teacher's first endeavour in regard to the youngest scholars?
8. How is this done?
9. Against what does the author protest?
10. What is the natural effect on children, of confining them to sit in the school-room through the day, when they are not old enough to study?

11. Why are children so long in learning the alphabet?

12. What should be united with efforts to please?

13. What does Mr. Wilderspin say in regard to his infant school?

14. How are children treated in his school?

15. What is the course recommended to be pursued with such as are not old enough to commit lessons?

16. What is the second exercise recommended?

17. Mention the third thing recommended.

18. What is the course recommended in teaching the alphabet?

19. What exercise is to succeed that of reading?

20. What is next recommended?

21. Mention the course recommended, when the teacher can devote attention to the smallest scholars a second time.

22. Why should arithmetic be a leading subject?

23. Repeat the directions given upon it.

24. What will be a great means of benefiting children?

25. Mention the example.

26. What ought to be provided for every district school?

27. From what books may the teacher derive great benefit?

28. What is the second general direction?

29. What is the third direction?

30. What observations are made on having work carried into school?

31. What is the fourth subject mentioned?

32. Why is great attention to neatness, on the part of the teacher requisite?

33. What ought children to associate with school?

34. What is the fifth subject mentioned?

35. Is it true that a proper degree of attention is paid to this subject?

36. What is the concluding advice?

37. What is the teacher's best reward?

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RECOMMENDATIONS.——*Boston, May,* 9, 1828.

Having examined with some care, the National Spelling-Book, compiled by B. D. Emerson, we cheerfully express our approbation of the work. It is evidently the result of much reflection, experience and labour, and its author has, in our opinion, accomplished all the important objects mentioned in his preface. We recommend the work to the school committees, instructers, and others concerned in directing common education throughout our country.

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This work is highly recommended by J. V. N. Yates, former superintendent of Common Schools in the state of New-York; De Witt Clinton, former governor of N. Y. T. Romeyn Beck, principal of Albany Academy; Henry K. Strong, principal of Pittsfield Academy; I. S. Spencer, principal of Schenectady Academy; A. I. Parker, principal of Hudson Academy; E. Holmes, principal of Dutchess Academy; the Inspectors of Schools in the city of Hudson, the Teachers in the cities of Albany and Troy, N. Y. and by many others whose names are not here mentioned.

☞ *Smith's Arithmetic.*—Petition of the Teachers of the Public Schools in Providence, to the Town-Council and School Committee——

We, the undersigned, Teachers of the Public Schools, beg leave to represent to the Hon. Town-Council and School Committee:—That we have for a long time been sensible that the system of Common Arithmetic, ordered to be used in the Public Schools, has many defects, and is not so well adapted to initiate the pupils into the science of figures, as an elementary book in such schools ought to be:—That a work, adapted to any age or capacity of pupils, by an experienced Teacher, was a great desideratum. Your petitioners believe that such a work has lately been presented to the public by Mr. ROSWELL C. SMITH.

We view it superfluous to point out what we consider as the defects of the one, or the superior merits of the other.—It may be sufficient, for the present, that we merely express to your Honours and the gentlemen of the School Committee, our decided preference of Mr. Smith's Arithmetic to any other now in use, with which we are acquainted;—and we most earnestly entreat that you would authorize its immediate introduction into the Public Schools.

Oliver Angell, Jos. B. Pettis, Origen Bacheller, Edward W. Baker, Joseph C. Gardner, William P. Taft, Alfred B. Lee.

The above petition was referred to

REV. F. WAYLAND, JUN. D. D.
REV. T. T. WATERMAN.
WM. T. GRINNELL, ESQ. } Sub-Committee.

The said Sub-Committee, after having visited the Public Schools in Boston for the purpose of obtaining general information on the subject of education, made their report, from which the following is an extract:—"Your Committee are, of opinion, that it would be expedient to introduce the System of Arithmetic published by Mr. Smith, into all the Public Grammar Schools; and also, that all the scholars in arithmetic be taught by classes, and not individually as is now the prevalent mode."

The Town-Council accordingly directed that "The System of Arithmetic, by Roswell C. Smith, be used in all the Public Schools in this town."

☞ The above work has also been introduced into the Schools of Hartford, Conn., by joint recommendation of Teachers and School Committee, and in numerous other Schools, both public and private, in various parts of the country.

☞ Of *Whelpley's Compend,* the Rev. Mr. Emerson says, in the Prospectus of his Female Seminary, "For many years I have been solicitously inquiring for the best Compend of General History for the use of Schools. That which I consider by far the best, which I have yet examined, is the Compend of Mr. Whelpley. My estimation of this work has been rising for more than ten years, while I have been engaged in reading and teaching it more than ten times through. It is not a mere compilation or abridgement in the words of others—his style is his own—a style, perhaps not less distinctly marked than that of any other prose writer in the language. He does not coldly tell us about the wonderful works of Providence, and the mighty deeds of men. He awakens them from the slumbers of ages; he sets them before our eyes. We see; we feel; we admire; we remember. Such lively descriptions of useful objects appear of inestimable importance to give to the young, clear, distinct and impressive conceptions of things. His work appears to possess nearly equal merit for the family, for the social library and for the school-class."

EMERSON'S SPELLING-BOOK.

"THE ingenious classification of the words, so as to mark accurately the sounds, not only of the accented, but of the unaccented syllables; the conciseness and simplicity, of the introduction and key; the abundance and judicious arrangement of the matter contained in the work, and its faithful mechanical execution, render it, in our opinon, decidedly superior to any Spelling-Book with which we are acquainted."

JOHN FROST, ABRAHAM ANDREWS, CORNELIUS WALKER, N. K. G. OLIVER, CHARLES FOX, WM. ADAMS, BARNUM FIELD, } *Masters in the Department of Reading and Grammar in the Public Schools of Boston*

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"Having attentively examined a copy of the National Spelling-Book, by B. D. Emerson, Esq. I do not hesitate to say, that in point of arrangement of words, correctness of pronunciation and orthography, it far exceeds any work of the kind which I have seen." BENJAMIN GREENLEAF, *Bradford Academy.*

"The plan of the National Spelling-Book is happily devised for the aid of school teachers, and for the intellectual improvement of scholars. It is very desirable that it be universally introduced. Send me a hundred to be introduced into this region. Your's, &c." ANDREW YATES, *Pres. of the Polytechny Instit. Chittenango, N. Y.*

"*Philadelphia, Oct. 28,* 1828. Having examined the National Spelling-Book of Mr. Benjamin D. Emerson, with considerable care and attention, we are free to express our opinion decidedly in its favor. JNO. M. BREWER, S. C. WALKER, SAML. JONES, JOS. R. EASTBURN, J. H. BROWN.

"Having examined with some care, the National Spelling Book, compiled by B. D. Emerson, we cheerfully express our approbation of the work.—We recommend the work to the school committees, instructers, and others concerned in directing common education throughout our country."

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REV. S. C. LOVELAND, *Reading, N. H. Au. of a Greek & En. Lex. of the N. T.*
DANIEL ADAMS, M. D. *Auth. of the Scholars' Arithmetic, School Geog. &c.*
REV. N. BOUTON, *Concord, N. H.* REV. N. W. WILLIAMS, *Do.*

"We have examined Mr. B. D. Emerson's Spelling-Book, with care and satisfaction. We think it contains improvements on initiatory books of the same class heretofore used." LEVI HEDGE, L.L.D. and SIDNEY WILLARD, A.M. *Harv. Univer.*

"I must say, I like the National Spelling-Book better than any other I ever saw; and I have seen many. J. I. HITCHCOCK, *Instructer, Baltimore.*

"I think the National Spelling-Book deserving of ample consideration, by teachers and committees, entrusted with the selection of school books.
WALTER R. JOHNSON, *Princ. of the High School Franklin Ins. Phila.*

"In the most flattering recommendations of Emerson's Spelling-Book, we fully concur, and we would cordially recommend it to our citizens as being in our opinion, better adapted for general use in our district schools than any other.
L. COLEMAN, M. LAWRENCE, M. SHAW, *School Committee of Belchertown.*

It has likewise received the approbation of Benjamin A. Gould, late Principal of the Public Latin Grammar School, Boston—Capt. Partridge, Sci. & Military Academy, Middletown—John Richardson, Leicester Academy—R. G. Parker, Roxbury.

☞ The School Committee of the city of Boston, after a very critical examination, have ordered its introduction into all the public schools of this city. And the Vermont Commissioners, appointed by the Legislature, have recommended this Spelling-Book as one of the best, for use in all the public schools of that State.

JUST PUBLISHED—AN INTRODUCTION TO THE NATIONAL SPELLING-BOOK; containing the first principles of Orthography and Pronunciation on the plan pursued in the National Spelling-Book, calculated for Primary Schools.

INTRODUCTION TO THE NATIONAL READER; a selection of Easy Lessons, designed to fill the same place in the schools of the United States, that is held by Murray's Introduction in those of Great Britain.

The compiler says, "This work is intended as *a series of exercises in reading for the younger classes of our common schools,* preparatory to the use of the National Reader.'

"It contains no matter that is to be found in either the last-mentioned selection, or the *American First Class Book:* so that the *three compilations may be used by different classes in the same school.*" "I have sought for pieces relating to subjects that *first attract the observation, and engage the thoughts of children; descriptions and anecdotes of domestic and other animals; instructions and admonitions as to their own duties towards 'every living thing;' the scenes of external nature upon the face of the earth; 'the beauty of heaven and its glorious show;' and the connexion of all these things with the great and good Being, who is over all and in them all.*"

"We have just examined a book, by the Rev. Mr. Pierpont of Boston, which he calls an INTRODUCTION TO THE NATIONAL READER, designed as a Third Class Book, which is admirably well calculated to attract the attention, and instruct children in reading, and at the same time instil into their minds the love of virtue, and impart to them that information which will be useful to them when the days of their childhood shall have passed away. The "Introduction to the National Reader," or Third Class Book, is, in our opinion, one of the best books that can be put into the hands of children, as a school book—and for the second class in schools, perhaps there is no book extant, which is so well calculated for youth, as the National Reader. It is now used extensively in this State, and we are informed, that there has been no book introduced into schools, that has answered so good a purpose as this, for classes for which it is designed by its learned and able compiler. The "American First Class Book," also compiled by Mr. Pierpont, is calculated as is indicated by its title, for the first classes in schools, and we hazard nothing in saying that there is no book, now published, which can come into competition with it."—*Oxford Observer.*

"Several months ago, we spoke in praise of Mr. Pierpont's "*National Reader,*" a work indeed suited for children of larger growth than generally go to school, as well as for students. The "*Introduction*" to this book, (as it is modestly called,) is now before us. The design of this latter compilation is, to fill the same place in the common schools of the United States, that is held by Murray's Introduction in Great Britain. The selections are of a very pure character; the beautiful feeling apparent in the preface, is carried through every page; and the parent who teaches her child from this little garland, will truly find, that it must thereby "learn something of the works of God, and the deeds of good and brave men." *The Albion, New York.*

"*Introduction to the National Reader.*—The Rev. Mr. Pierpont, compiler of the American First-Class Book and the National Reader, has added another useful little work to those which are at present popular as school books. It is intended as an intermediate reading book, between the two others above mentioned, and as a substitute for Murray's Introduction, and the other compilations now in use of the same character. The selections, which seem to us judicious, are, in a great measure, made from the writings of Americans; which is as it should be. We have no hesitation, as far as we are competent to judge of the subject, in recommending this little book to parents and teachers."—*New York Commercial Advertiser.*

"Mr. Pierpont's Introduction possesses the recommendations of chaste literary style in the pieces, along with a peculiarly easy, natural, and interesting manner of presenting their subjects to the young mind. There is nothing formal, dull, or unintelligible, to be found in what we have seen of the book. A spirit and animation, harmonizing finely with the character of youth, and rendering the work uncommonly valuable for the purposes of reading and elocution, pervade every lesson. The moral instruction imparted by the influence of the selection on the memory, the imagina-

tion, and the heart, forms an excellent feature of this compilation; and the American character which the author has given to his work, by the occasional introduction of appropriate biography and anecdote, while it increases the interest of the reading, serves a useful purpose in relation to national character and feeling." —*Journal of Education.*

"The *Introduction to the National Reader,* we are confident, will fulfil its design —which is, as set forth in the title page, to fill the same place in the common schools of the United States, that is held by Murray's Introduction, and the compilations of Guy, Mylius, and Pinnock, in those of Great Britain. Its contents possess the charm of dignified simplicity, the loveliness of virtuous sentiment, and the interest of pleasing novelty, embracing ninety-four lessons on a great variety of topics. Not the least valuable part of the instruction inculcated is that which appertains to the treatment of animals. Mr. Pierpont has introduced two original pieces from his pen on this subject, full of tenderness and beauty. The book before us is printed on a fair type, and in good taste. Great care has been taken, in giving the exact pronunciation of difficult words, (Walker being the standard,) and in the use of the accents. We recommend this useful compilation to the attention and patronage of teachers of youth in our common schools generally." *Bennington Times.*

Regarding two other works of Mr. Pierpont's, the same writer says—"his *National Reader* and *American First Class Book,* deserve a place not only in our academies, but also in our libraries."

ELEMENTS OF GEOMETRY,

with Practical Applications, for the use of Schools. By T. WALKER, Teacher of Mathematics, in the Round Hill School, at Northampton.

The design of this work is to furnish a cheap and easy introduction to the principles of Geometry. It is written expressly for young students, and contains all the propositions necessary for understanding the subsequent part of a mathematical course. The style of demonstration is familair, and the matter is compressed within as small a compass as perspicuity would allow. The definitions are placed immediately before the magnitudes defined, and the problems immediately after the theorems upon which they depend. The introduction contains a brief history of Geometry. The body of the work is divided into three sections; the first treating of Lines and their relations; the second of Surfaces and their areas; and the third, of Solids and their measures. The Appendix is designed to illustrate the uses of Geometry by some of its most important practical applications. To impress the fundamental propositions more deeply on the memory, they are collected together at the end, with a series of questions for the exercise of the learner.

The AMERICAN FIRST CLASS BOOK, or exercises in Reading and Recitations, selected principally from Modern Authors of Great Britain and America, and designed for the use of the highest Class in public and private Schools. By JOHN PIERPONT, Author of the National Reader, Introduction to the National Reader, &c. &c.

This Book has been compiled with a special reference to the Public Reading and Grammar Schools of this City. It is the result of an attempt to supply the want, which has long been a subject of complaint among those whom the citizens of Boston have charged with the general superintendence of their public schools, as well as with those who are appointed to the immediate instruction of them; of a Book of Exercises in Reading and Speaking, better adapted than any English compilation that has yet appeared, to the state of society as it is in this country, and less obnoxious to complaint, on the ground of its national or political character, than it is reasonable to expect that any English compilation would be, among a people whose manners, opinions, literary institutions, and civil government, are so strictly republican as our own.

"The American First Class Book which has been favourably known to the public for several years, was intended, as its name imports, for the most advanced classes of the highest Schools, in which reading forms a part of the course of instruction. The extensive and increasing circulation, which that valuable selection has received and is receiving, and the success with which the use of it has been attended, are sufficient indications that such a book was needed, and that the author has made a judicious selection and arrangement of exercises."—*American Journal of Education.*

TESTAMENT AND VOCABULARY.

Just published, for the use of Schools, THE NEW TESTAMENT, accompanied with a VOCABULARY, containing all the words used in the book, *alphabetically* arranged, with their *division, accentuation,* part of *speech,* and *definition.*—To which is added, *A Catalogue of the Proper Names,* contained therein; divided, accented, and pronounced, according to Mr. Walker's rules for the pronunciation of Scripture Proper Names; likewise several other useful and interesting Tables. By R. BENTLEY. Designed principally for the use of Schools.

The New Testament is so universally used by all classes of people, and of such utility, that to read it understandingly, is of the utmost importance. The first impressions made upon the mind should be free from error. Erroneous opinions are frequently formed of numerous passages, by not understanding the meaning of the words contained in them. To obviate these difficulties, and render every part plain and easy to be understood, a Vocabulary of all the words therein contained, is annexed to the work; alphabetically arranged, divided, accented, pronounced, and the definition given in plain and concise terms; which will enable the reader to refer to any word that occurs, the defintion of which he does not understand, and thereby form a correct idea of whatever he reads.

After the Vocabulary, a list of the Proper Names contained in the New Testament is given, adapted to Mr. Walker's Principles for the Pronunciation of Scripture Proper Names. Readers are much perplexed in ascertaining the true sound of these words; and indeed, we hear but few individuals pronounce them correctly; but by a reference to the catalogue as the names occur in reading, their pronunciation may be acquired without any inconvenience.

Of the usefulness of the New Testament as a School Book, nothing need be said; " it commends itself to every attentive reader, by the purity of its precepts, the sublimity of its doctrines, the majesty of its style, and the manifest tendency of the whole to produce *love* to *God,* and *good will* toward *men.*"

It is allowed by the best judges, that by a reference to the meaning of words as they occur in reading, the definition will be retained much easier than by any other method.

SMITH'S ARITHMETIC.

NEW EDITION, IMPROVED.

The present edition is strictly on the Pestalozzian plan, adopting no rule, without a previous development of its truth. *Blocks,* illustrating the Cube Root, accompany the work; and many improvements have been made, particularly in the mode of giving answers, and about 80 pages of matter have been added. The work will now claim the attention not only of teachers of common schools, but also of Academies, and of all literary Seminaries, in which the study of Arithmetic is *rationally* pursued.

The following are a few of the prominent characteristics of this work, in which it is thought to differ from all others.

1. The interrogative system is generally adopted throughout this work.
2. The common rules of arithmetic are exhibited so as to correspond with the occurrences in actual business. Under this head is reckoned the application of Ratio to practical purposes, Fellowship, &c.
3. There is a constant recapitulation of the subject attended to, styled " Questions on the foregoing."
4. The mode of giving the individual results without points, then the aggregate of these results, with points, for an answer, by which the relative value of the whole is determined, thus furnishing a complete test of the knowledge of the pupil. This is a characteristic difference between this and the former editions.
5. A new rule for calculating interest for days with months.
6. The mode of introducing and conducting the subject of Proportion.
7. The adoption of the federal coin, to the exclusion of sterling money, except by itself.
8. The arithmetical tables are practically illustrated, previously and subsequently to their insertion.

9. As this mode of teaching recognises no authority but that of reason, it was found necessary to illustrate the rule for the extraction of the Cube Root, by means of *Blocks*, which accompany this work.

These are some of the predominant traits of this work. Others might be mentioned, but, by the examination of these, the reader will be qualified to decide on their comparative value.

The Block, illustrative of the rule for the Cube Root, will satisfactorily account for many results in other rules; as, for instance, in Decimals, Mensuration, &c. which the pupil, by any other means, might fail to perceive.

Notice of this work from the Journal of Education.

"A careful examination of this valuable work will show that its author has compiled it, as all books for school use ought to be compiled, from the results of actual experiment and observation in the school-room. It is entirely a practical work, combining the merits of Colburn's system with copious practice on the slate.

"Two circumstances enhance very much the value of this book. It is very comprehensive, containing twice the usual quantity of matter in works of this class; while, by judicious attention to arrangement and printing, it is rendered, perhaps, the cheapest book in this department of education. The brief system of Book-Keeping, attached to the Arithmetic, will be a valuable aid to more complete instruction in common schools, to which the work is, in other respects, so peculiarly adapted.

"There are several very valuable peculiarities in this work, for which we cannot, in a notice, find sufficient space. We would recommend a careful examination of the book, to all teachers who are desirious of combining good theory with copious and rigid practice."

Recommended also by the Providence School Committee, and introduced into all the Public Grammar Schools of that town. *Committee*—Rev. F. Wayland, Jr. D. D. Pres. Brown Univ. (Chairman); Rev. Thomas Waterman, and Wm. T. Grinnell, Esq.

Introduced likewise into the public schools of Hartford; and recommended by the State Commissioners of Vermont to be adopted throughout that state.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Just published——Elements of English Grammar, with progressive exercises in Parsing. By JOHN FROST, late Principal of the Mayhew Grammar School, Boston. The publishers believe that this little work will be found well adapted to the capacities of children. Without making any pretensions to originality or departing *widely* from the general outline of Murray, it appears to have been the aim of the author to remove some of the difficulties that have so often rendered Grammar a dry study to young minds. Though less full, and perhaps less Philosophical than some other works of the kind, it is at the same time designed to be less abstruse, and more practically useful. Definitions have been simplified, and the exercises so arranged, as to lead the pupil by an easy gradation to the solution of the greatest difficulties in parsing, and, what is more important, the correct use of language.

The work is recommended to the favourable notice of teachers and school committees

The *Journal of Education* has the following remarks upon this work:

This little volume is in several respects excellently adapted to common and elementary schools. It is on the general plan of Murray, without assuming his name, but the whole book is simplified in language, so as to meet the capacities of children. The progressive character of the exercises, and their exact adaptation to every rule and principle, give this little volume a peculiar claim to the attention of instructers.

If Murray's Abridgement is to be displaced this work is one which may be advantageously adopted, since it contains what is valuable in Murray, presented in a simple and practical form.

From the Masters in the Boston Public Reading and Grammar Schools.

BOSTON, September 12, 1829.

MR. JOHN FROST,—Dear Sir,

We have attentively examined your Grammar, and we do not hesitate to say that it appears to us better adapted to the younger classes in Common Schools, than any other work with which we are acquainted. You have, indeed, omitted much that is essential to a full and thorough treatise, and which ought to be studied in our higher schools, but this we consider a great recommendation of your book. By giving the subject a bolder outline, simplifying the phraseology of Murray, and especially by introducing copious examples and exercises, you have removed many difficulties,

and have made Grammar, we think an easy study for children. We are pleased to see that you have not departed *widely* from the principles of Murray,—to whose larger work, we consider yours an excellent introduction.

Abraham Andrews.	N. K. G. Oliver.
Charles Fox	Wm. J. Adams.
Cornelius Walker.	Barnum Field.
R. G. Parker.	Saml. Barrett.

THE NEW LATIN READER, containing the Latin Text for the purpose of recitation, accompanied with a Key, containing the Text, a literal and free Translation, arranged in such a manner as to point out the difference between the Latin and English Idioms. For the use of Beginners in the Study of the Latin Language. By S. C. Walker, Philadelphia.

Extract from the Journal of Education.

We regard the method of studying Latin proposed by Mr. Walker as very decidedly superior to the prevailing one. It is recommended by philosophy as well as by common sense. It is a mode of instruction calculated to interest the youngest class of learners instead of perplexing and fatigueing them in the manner of the ancient method. It is particularly suited to the purposes of maternal instruction and to the use of those advanced beyond the period of childhood, who may wish to instruct themselves. Lastly it is admirably calculated for the purposes of monitorial instruction.

We have already so fully borne testimony to the general merits of the system and to the faithful execution of this work in particular, that it is scarcely necessary to add a cordial recommendation of Mr. Walker's book to teachers and parents throughout our country.

GOODRICH'S HISTORY.

A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, on a plan adapted to the capacity of youth, and designed to aid the memory by a systematic arrangement and interesting associations. By Rev. C. A. Goodrich, author of Outlines of Geography.

This work is used in the first seminaries of the U. S. It is written in a plain, easy and intelligible style,—its arrangement of the subject is clear and natural, and it is rendered extremely interesting to youth by the introduction of lively anecdotes and narrations, which serve to illustrate points in the history.

The following, copied from Mr. Emerson's prospectus of the Weathersfield Female Seminary, is of weight as proceeding from one of the most experienced teachers in New England.

" By using it the last season, the high opinion which I had formed of its worth was confirmed and raised. The author is uncommonly happy in his arrangement of facts; in presenting a simple, concise and luminous view of the subject which in its nature is peculiarly complex and intricate; in dividing the time into eleven periods; in tracing causes and effects;—in publishing the principle and subordinate parts in type of different sizes; and in presenting reflections for the benefit of the youthful mind." " The style is easy, neat and remarkably perspicuous, and suited to improve the taste of the learner. On this account this little compend appears peculiarly adapted to the use of schools."

Questions and Supplement to Goodrich's History of the United States. By Joseph Emerson. Principal of the Female Seminary Wethersfield, Ct.

GOODRICH'S GEOGRAPHY.

OUTLINES OF MODERN GEOGRAPHY, on a new plan carefully adapted to youth, with numerous Engravings of Cities, Manners, Costumes, and Curiosities; accompanied by an Atlas. By Rev. C. A. Goodrich, author of a History U. S. &c.

This Geography and Atlas is thought to possess peculiar advantages:

The elementary and most important parts of Geography are put into the form of question and answer; a form which experience has shown to be more successful for beginners than any other.—

Being led gradually into the study, instead of aversion and the habit of being satisfied with half formed ideas, the result of a difficult arrangement and a style above the comprehension of youth, his interest will be excited and half the labor of teaching and learning will be saved; while he will derive more distinct views and possess himself lastingly of more facts than by the common method of teaching.

The Review, given at the end, is thought to be of particular value. It will be a scrutinizing test of the scholar's proficiency; will lead him to make comparisons, which are the foundation of inference and opinion; will invigorate his mind, and will establish the facts in his memory; and tend to make him a thorough geographer.

The work is as full as others, and is so constructed as to cost but two thirds as much as any other work as comprehensive.

GOODRICH'S LARGE ATLAS.

The success of Goodrich's Geography has encouraged the publishers to comply with the request of several teachers, to supply a larger Atlas adapted to that work. Such an one is now respectfully offered to the public, in the hope that it will be found adapted to the views of those whose wishes have induced its publication.

HISTORICAL LESSONS.

HISTORICAL AND DESCRIPTIVE LESSONS, embracing sketches of the History, Character and Customs of all Nations: designed as a companion to Goodrich's, Woodbridge's, Morse's, Smithley's, and other School Geographies. With numerous engravings.

This is a new and original work, not only as respects the matter and arrangement, but also in its object, which is to teach the history, character and manners of nations in the same manner and at the same time that the geography is taught. It is calculated to be a companion to the Geography, and is arranged in the same order, substituting the history, character and manners for the geography of countries.

It is the design of the present work to take advantage of curiosity excited, to instruct the pupil in the grand features of History. When he has learned from the map, the shape of countries, the relative situation of places, the course of rivers and the position of mountains—when he has gathered from his book the extent of nations and has some general ideas of the face of countries productions and climates, and can picture to himself the appearance, character and pursuits of the inhabitants, then while the impressions are distinct and the interest of the pupil fresh, it is proposed to give him the present volume, that he may go back to past events and complete the pictures of the world and its inhabitants, which Geography has only begun.

The work is so arranged that it may be used as a reading book, and it is thought to be particularly well adapted to the purpose, as it presents every advantage of variety and interest, combined with much information and profit.

MORSE'S GEOGRAPHY.

The attention of Instructers is invited to the last edition of Morse's Geography, which has been revised with great care, and such parts Stereotyped as do not necessarily require to be altered in each new edition. This work has become a standard, in most of the High Schools and Academies in the United States. The talents of the present Editor, Mr. S. E. Morse, as a Geographer, are too well known to be questioned. The valuable materials, collected by his father, during forty or fifty years' service, he has digested and concentrated in this work, with ability, and particular attention to the present wants and improved state of Schools. Perhaps no Geographer was ever more extensively quoted, or followed in his plans, than the late senior author of this work. It is supposed that upwards of 500,000 volumes of his geographical works have been published in America and in various parts of Europe: his large Geography has been there republished, in quarto.

Extract from a notice of this work in the Journal of Education, Oct. 1829.

" We consider the authors of the present work as advancing two distinct and well founded claims to public patronage. In the first place Doctor Morse was emphatically and truly the Father of American Geography; and in the second place, he has kept up with the age in the progress of improvement. Not that he and his coadjutor have copied the improvements of others in our country; for it appears that the latter distinctly claims the merit of originating independently the system of general and comparative views, used by Mr. Woodbridge and Mrs. Willard, without denying them the same merit; and the interrogative system of Guy and Goldsmith was promptly adopted as soon as their works became known here."

' The general and comparative views,' says the junior editor in his preface to the twenty-sixth edition, ' form only one feature of our improvement. The whole plan embraces three things. 1. *Outline views* of the globe and its grand divisions. 2. *Connected descriptions in detail* of the different countries or parts of each outline. And

3. *Recapitulatory or general and comparative views.* This is the plan which the mind requires in order to the easy performance of its task.—And after having described very briefly the shape and size of the earth, and its relations to other parts of the universe, the pupil should be presented with a brief outline of the surface of the whole globe; consisting of little else than the names and relative position of its oceans, continents, and grand divisions. He is then prepared to commence immediately the study of some one of these divisions—North America for example—and here, he should be presented with another outline, exhibiting the prominent features of the country, such as the mountain ranges, the great river lines, the principal bays and gulfs, the long chain of lakes, &c. in describing all which, care should be taken to introduce no names which will not be immediately intelligible to the pupil. Such a view will prepare him to come with advantage to the study of the descriptions of particular countries, and any further introduction to these descriptions we conceive to be entirely unnecessary. The plan of beginning elementary treatises of geography, with general views of the animal, mineral, and vegetable kingdoms, of the various races of men, degrees of civilization of different nations, &c. we conceive, is wholly wrong because, in giving such views, there is a constant use of the names of countries, people, and places, with which the pupil has not yet been made acquainted. The object of every introductory view, in an elementary treatise, should be to make the succeeding parts of the work more intelligible. It is, therefore, highly improper to insert here what cannot be understood, till the close of the volume.'

" The method presented in this work of conveying a notion of the general features of a country is excellent; and the plan of examining pupils in outline maps, by way of general review, will be found to furnish an admirable means of testing their proficiency.

" One of the worst difficulties for pupils in the study of geography arises from the dry, uninteresting manner in which the facts are recorded in the text books, and from the continued repetitions which are permitted to occur in them. From these defects the present work is remarkably free; the style is easy and unaffected; and wherever it can be done with propriety, the names of places are connected with some striking historical association, or some interesting fact in natural history. Care is taken, moreover, that the same description should not be applied to a thousand different towns. The instructer who has ever used a text book of a different character will know how to appreciate these points of excellence.

" On the whole, whether we consider the number of improvements embraced in the present work, the amount of information contained in it, the ease and purity of its style, or the neatness and accuracy of its execution both in the text and the maps, we must assign it a high rank among school geographies; nor do we intend any disparagement to its numerous competitors, when we say that, although with reference to some particular point it may be excelled by one or more, yet considered with regard to its various improvements taken collectively, it is inferior to none of them. It is this general excellence which has enabled Morse's Geography to maintain its ground amidst a host of new competitors in an age of novelty and change; and which will continue to secure it an extensive circulation wherever books are tried on their own merits."

BOTANY. Just published, FAMILIAR LECTURES ON BOTANY, for the use of the higher Schools and Academies. By MRS. ALMIRA H. LINCOLN, Vice-Principal of the Troy Female Seminary.

***NATIONAL READER. At a meeting of the School Committee of the City of Boston, holden at the Mayor and Aldermen's Room, July 2d 1829,—Voted, That " Pierpont's National Reader" be introduced into the public grammar schools of this city, in lieu of " Murray's English Reader," after the visitation of the Schools in August.

Attest, T. W. PHILLIPS, Secretary of the School Committee.

IN THE PRESS. LECTURES ON SCHOOL KEEPING; being a complete Schoolmaster's Manual: highly serviceable also to every person engaged in the subject of common schools. By S. R. HALL.

☞School Committees and Teachers furnished with any of the foregoing books for examination, gratis.

☞R. L. & H. have also for sale a very large stock of Miscellaneous Books, suitable for Social Libraries. Purchasers are invited to call.

FROST'S GRAMMAR.—*To the Publishers.*—I have examined Mr. FROST'S *"Elements of English Grammar, with Progressive Exercises in Parsing,"* and am happy to say I consider it better than any work I have seen, for the younger classes of scholars. I am pleased with the arrangement, and with its plainness. Where the author has varied from MURRAY'S definitions, he has greatly improved them. I have wished, for several years, to introduce a better Grammar into the Academy in this place; but have never seen one before, that I have sufficiently approved. I have introduced Mr. FROST'S, and shall hereafter use it.

S. R. HALL,
Principal of Academy at Concord, Vt.

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NOTE—This is an index of *Hall's Lectures on School-Keeping* only, and is not an index to the account of his life or other material in this book. The Table of Contents gives sufficient indications as to where to find material not in the Lectures. This index has been prepared by the present authors and was not a part of the original book as prepared by Samuel R. Hall, in any of its five editions. Numbers refer to folios indicated at tops of pages in reprinted section.

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